The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 9, 1886.

The Week.

THE line of the earthquake appears to have been nearly north and south, and to have embraced with greater or less intensity nearly the whole region on this side of the Mississippi. The violence of the shocks reached a climax in South Carolina, where the city of Charleston has been almost laid in ruins, with considerable loss of life. The damage done in other parts of the country has been trifling, and in many places it is evident that most of those who felt the earthquake did not know it until they looked in the newspapers the next morning. But the smallest quake extending over such a wide area, and becoming extremely violent at any one point, contains a suggestion which is amply sufficient to shake the nerves of all dwellers in the great cities on the Atlantic coast. The vibration which has left Charleston a wreck, if it took place even for ten seconds among the cloud-capped towers and gorgeous palaces of New York or Boston, would make fearful havoc.

The small extent of knowledge respecting the causes of earthquakes, even among those scientists who have given the subject most attention, is strikingly shown by an incident which has just happened in London. Prof. Dawson, Principal of McGill College in Montreal, read on Wednesday week before the British Association an exhaustive paper on the geological formation of the bed of the Atlantic, with especial reference to its bearing upon the question of earthquakes. The paper was highly praised and regarded as a valuable contribution to the discussion, but within a day came the full account of the Charleston upheaval, and Prof. Dawson now frankly makes this confession:

> "The phenomena of the present earthquake convulsions in America and elsewhere, but particularly in America, are extremely puzzling, and completely upset some of the conclusions set forth in the address I read last evening."

Mr. Blaine's canvass in Maine has passed the point where it need be considered seriously. Instead of leading the attention of the country to himself as a statesman of broad national views, he is now engaged in a bitter personal wrangle with the leaders of the Prohibition party, in which they appear to much better advantage than he does. So far as this course is going to have a national effect, it will work greatly to his disadvantage. He is not going to help his standing as a candidate by embittering the temperance voters against him even more than they were before. Every time that he assails Neal Dow and Mr. St. John he assails the cause of which they are the leaders, and alienates thousands of voters from himself. He is, in fact, by every speech he makes, reducing the Blaine party to a snugger minority than ever, and no friend of honest politics can regard his work otherwise than with complacency.

A correspondent, who was among the Independent Republicans of 1884, thinks it is time that these Independents should declare their position for 1888, and that in doing so they should now openly enter the ranks of the Democratic party. Several sentences in his letter show that he is not a man who has trained himself to consider political questions from a strictly non-partisan standpoint. Had President Cleveland, following the advice he now gives, "recognized" the Independents by dividing the offices among them, he would at the start have incurred the ill will of the party which nominated him, and to which he had to look for support, without gaining a whit more of the cordial approval of those men who went outside their own party to vote for him than he has by the course which he has pursued. And had leading Independents accepted offices from him, the commendation which he is receiving from men of their class would have lost a large part of its value and effect. What this haste to "fuse with the Administration party" would lead to, our correspondent himself indicates in his criticism of the course of the New York Independents in not preferring Hill to Davenport as a candidate for Governor in this State. A man who can, in the light of present circumstances, look back with any regret because his vote was not cast for Hill, can hardly expect a place among safe political advisers.

The Independent voter has much less to fear from his continued independence than our correspondent thinks. Who the Presidential candidates will be in 1888 no man can now tell. Mr. Blaine certainly is not so near a renomination as this writer thinks. It should be every good citizen's wish that both parties will place in nomination the most unexceptionable candidates whom they can secure. Then, whichever party wins, the high office will not be disgraced. The influence of the Independents, while they remain Independents, will go far in bringing about this result. For, scoff as party workers and party writers on both sides may at the Mugwumps, the leaders of both parties know that the Mugwump vote may turn the scale in more than one State in 1888. Knowing this, they will make a greater effort to satisfy that vote than they would if, on the one hand, it was enrolled on their side, or, on the other, was openly arrayed against them. We are inclined to think that this independent position of the Independents will make more for political reform than would their presence in the party caucuses, granting that while they remain Independents the caucus doors will be closed to them. If the Democratic party shall continue to grow in wisdom as it is growing now under President Cleveland's teaching, and shall make that wisdom manifest at its next Presidential convention, no Independent will have to censure himself for not taking early part in its councils. And if, as our correspondent assumes, a second nomination of Blaine will be equivalent to a second nomination of Cleveland, why then, the result will almost take care of itself.

The improvement in Indiana politics which began with the recent Democratic State Convention has been still further advanced by the Republican State Convention last week. The Democratic gathering was rendered notable by the high character of the delegates and the prominence of the progressive young element in the party. It heartily applauded Cleveland, and showed most clearly the new spirit which the President has infused into the party. So promising an opening of the canvass did the Democrats thus make that the Republicans felt compelled to elevate the standard of their platform. The resolutions, as a whole, are decidedly above the average, while the deliverance on civil-service reform is explicit and progressive:

> "We favor a thorough and honest enforcement of the Civil-Service Law, and the extension of its principle to the State administration wherever it can be made practicable, to the end that the corruption and flagrant abuses that exist in the management of our public institutions may be done away with, and they be liberated from partisan control."

We gather from the columns of the *Civil-Service Reformer* that the "boss" of Baltimore politics is not Senator Gorman, but one J. Frank Morrison, President of the Crescent Club of that city. There are bosses and bosses. New York has had large experience of the breed, but she has never had a boss who would allow convicts to go around town collecting political assessments before their term in prison had expired. This, it appears, has been the function of one William Wagner, a saloon-keeper who killed a man last year "under the most brutal circumstances," and received the light sentence of two years in jail, the sentence expiring in the autumn of 1887. Notwithstanding his supposed incarceration, Wagner has been out on several blackmailing expeditions, collecting money from saloon-keepers not yet convicted, by threatening to expose them for selling liquor on Sunday. The watchman of the jail accompanied him. It is urged in mitigation that the watchman was the real culprit, and that as he could not write, while Wagner could, he took the latter along as an amanuensis. Twenty dollars was the amount exacted as hush money from each saloon visited. The watchman, when called to account, said that the money was raised for political purposes, and expressed surprise that anybody "in politics" should question the proceedings. When informed that they would be questioned he left for parts unknown. The question of immediate interest is whether the boss-ship of Mr. Morrison includes the Baltimore jail, as that of the late Mr. Tweed included the penal and reformatory institutions of New York. It is all very droll.

The report of the Legislative Committee of the Knights of Labor is a document of some value, since it discloses the ideas which the Venerable Sages of the organization deem of most importance in national politics, and also the

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names of the Congressmen whom they esteem most deserving of their support and confidence. As to measures, we find that the Knights' Committee did everything in their power to promote the passage of the Morrison surplus resolution. Indeed, they claim the credit of having dug it out of the Committee of Ways and Means, where it had lain buried more than five months. They insinuate that Mr. Morrison himself felt no interest in the measure, and they punctuate this slur by leaving his name out of the Directory, while putting in that of his colleague, Mr. Springer. The surplus resolution as it passed the House meets their hearty approval, but, as amended by the Senate, "it would have been the greatest victory that Wall Street has gained since the credit-strengthening act of 1869." Accordingly they commend the action of the President in refusing to sign it. In other words, the "pocket veto" which has been so severely condemned by some of our Republican friends in the West, is endorsed by the Knights as being in the interests of "the people." What a horrible thought it must be to the Republicans of Iowa that they did not comprehend the interests of the people when they passed a resolution denouncing the pocket veto. We shall depend upon Gen. Weaver to keep them reminded of this betrayal of the popular cause all through the campaign. The only measure or series of measures reported upon, aside from the surplus resolution, are the land-grant forfeiture bills. As to these the Committee merely report progress and ask leave to sit again.

We see that the journeyman plumbers have resolved that no boys who have learned plumbing at the Trade School shall be employed in this city. Is there no one who can reason with our journeyman friends, or have they had their own way so long that reasoning would be in vain? Have they forgotten that they are living in America and not in Russia, and that the whole foundation of American prosperity consists in education and freedom; in giving to every boy, however poor his parentage or humble his condition, an opportunity to rise and learn? What would they say to a convention of doctors which should resolve that they would not attend hospitals any more because a poor man who breaks his leg is treated there without charge? What would they say to a convention of army officers for the purpose of procuring a law abolishing West Point, so that there should be no young men coming into the army to take their places? What would they say if men who knew how to read and write should refuse any longer to pay taxes for schools, so that they could keep in their own hands the advantage which the knowledge of reading and writing gives, and keep the rest of mankind in ignorance?

As the "Consular Regulations" are, we learn, about to be subjected to a severe revision by the officials of the Department of State, we beg to inquire if some method cannot be devised by which we may be spared the mortification of having a large number of our consuls supported at the expense of foreign bankers. By paragraphs 546, 547, and 549 of the present Regulations, our consuls, who are paid a fixed salary, are permitted to apply the fees collected by them to the payment of their own compensation, office expenses, and clerk hire, and are required to transmit the residue to the United States bankers at London, and, in case the fees are not sufficient to cover their salaries, they are authorized to draw on the Treasury for the difference. Of these drafts it is safe to say that one-tenth, after having been "cashed" at the bank of the place where the consul resides, and after having passed through the hands of a score of people in due course of business, are rejected by the Treasury because drawn against an appropriation which has become exhausted, or which has "lapsed," or which does not seem to be properly chargeable with drafts of the character of those presented. Or payment is refused because the account of the officer upon which the draft is based has not been received, or has not been adjusted, or does not warrant payment. When these reasons are reported to the banker who has advanced the money on the drafts, he, of course, looks to the consul, if by some good fortune he is still in the service; and fortunate is the consul who can make it clear that there has been no "crookedness" on his part, and that there is no displeasure with him at home. If the banker is not saved from loss by the consul, he indignantly inquires of the Treasury if servants of this Government, required to give bond for the proper discharge of their duties and faithful accounting of all moneys coming into their hands sent abroad, supplied with blank bills of exchange, which they are authorized to fill up and negotiate, are to be made a charge upon him. The exasperating and incredibly "audacious" reply is, that it is not the policy of this Government to pay drafts not warranted by the state of the accounts or the appropriations, in order to protect foreign bankers and with a purpose of holding the sureties of the consul liable.

The result of this system is, that some consuls cannot discount their drafts abroad, but are obliged to wait for a remittance from the Treasury after the settlement of each quarter's account; others are accommodated after payment of an enormous discount for the risk assumed, for which, by the way, they are reimbursed by the Government, and all are constantly reminded of the contempt which the consular service has brought upon the United States. Now, it may appear incredible, but all this can be remedied by one stroke of Mr. Bayard's pen. It is usual both in the State and Treasury Department to deplore this sad condition of affairs, and to visit the blame upon Congress. It is true that Congress could years ago have put our consular service upon the respectable basis which Mr. Belmont's bill, soon to become law, we hope, has established; but the Secretary of State, by the exercise of the same power which was exerted in the adoption and execution of paragraphs 546, 547, and 549 of the present regulations, can, unaided, entirely remove the evil to which we have adverted. In lieu of these paragraphs, he can require our consuls to deposit with the London bankers all fees which they collect, and to draw on them for their salaries and expenses. This would not only insure prompt payment of their drafts, and consequently avoid the excessive discount now paid annually by the Government, but would actually result in a gain, as exchanges are nearly always in favor of London wherever our consuls are stationed. Of course, it might be found advisable to modify such a regulation so as to permit certain of our consuls to transmit their fees direct, and to draw upon the Treasury, and to establish in China another Government fiscal agency for the convenience of the service in the East.

The scavengers of the metropolitan press are now devoting all their energies to hunting down a woman who, having once given them great opportunities for "enterprise" by marrying her father's coachman, has now aroused them to new exertions by leaving her husband without saying where she was going. Whole columns on the first page are devoted to the results of the search, with a fine collection of "theories" as to the cause of her flight and the place of her hiding. The "theory" is a great favorite with the scavenger, for under cover of following it out he can dig up the whole of the woman's married life by publishing all the vulgar tattle which he can find in bar-rooms and on theatre curbstones concerning it. We presume that there is an active market for this disgusting stuff, and that the "great editors" who are responsible for its publication find that it "pays" them well. There ought to be a law compelling them to sign their names to it.

The number of gun accidents this year has been unusually large, and the carelessness which caused some of them unusually great. One young man at Lake Placid was actually driving over rough roads in a buckboard with the muzzle of a loaded gun laid against his body and the stock between his feet, and in lighting a cigarette he gave the trigger the needed twitch with his foot, and blew his elbow off. Another young man in Pennsylvania met with a more extraordinary accident still. He had loaded his gun, and inserted the top of a lucifer match in the hammer to make sure of a discharge, and, thus prepared, leaned on it with the muzzle close to his face. The stock slipped, the trigger caught in a plank, and the charge tore the side of his head off. The accidents do not diminish in number, because a fresh crop of youths take to gunning every summer, and because they never seem to learn anything more about a gun than how to load and fire it. The fact, is that the carrying of a sporting gun is fully as important a part of sporting drill, if we may call it so, as the shooting. A man beginning to shoot should at once acquire habits of carrying which will stick to him, without his taking thought, so that he will instinctively keep the muzzle away from him. It ought to be disgraceful and ridiculous for a sportsman to be seen with the barrel of his gun pointing into his body, or using it as a staff to lean on, or as a walking stick to hit things with.

The *Westminster Review* for July, in an article on the Registration of *Titles* as distinguished from the registration of mere deeds and instruments affecting title, shows that the

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Australian colonies have a system of state insurance of recorded titles, whereby a small fraction of the fees paid for recording titles is set apart as a fund for indemnifying every person who is defrauded of his land by the recording of a false title, and the State guarantees the validity of every title actually recorded. This makes titles good in every recorded purchase in a manner even more complete than commercial paper is valid in the hands of a bona-fide endorsee. The object of the writer is to prove that in England a like system of registering titles failed, because the law failed to provide an indemnifying fund out of which an owner who should happen to be "recorded out of his titles," or to lose his title by a false record, should be reimbursed, while the Australian system succeeded because of the provision for such a fund. In 1880 the assurance fund of the various registering colonies in Australia amounted to £180,000, while the total of all the compensations paid to injured owners had been only £2,500, and the several funds of Tasmania, New South Wales, and New Zealand were actually intact, as were those of western Australia. The percentage charged is one-fifth of 1 per cent. on the value of the land conveyed. This is certainly cheaper as well as more effective than the means by which the titles are passed in most parts of America. We notice, however, that the article is marred by an error in the statement that the Australian system has been adopted in Iowa. The writer enumerates:

"In England and Ireland (to an almost inappreciable extent, however), in the Australasian and in some other colonies, in Iowa, U. S. A., in the Hanse Towns, in Prussia, Hesse, and some other districts in Europe, and in the French colony in Tunis, registry of titles has been established."

As to Iowa this is erroneous, the registry there being simply a registry of deeds with the same effect exactly as in the other States.

The Central Association of German Industries, nearly a year ago, was driven by the handful of bimetallists in that country to propose a discussion of the monetary-standard question among the forty-five branches of the Association, to be followed by answers to a series of questions definitely stated. The discussions have been held and answers returned by thirty-four of the branch associations. Three of these advocate the introduction of the double standard. Twenty-one have decided in favor of the present gold standard of the German Empire. Three are opposed to any use of silver, except for subsidiary coins; that is, they favor calling in and suppressing the outstanding thalers. The answers of the remaining branches were more or less hypothetical. The disappointment of the bimetallists is great, since the movement was initiated by them in the expectation that the business men would take the view so industriously disseminated in England and on the Continent that the hard times of the past three or four years were due to a shortage of gold. This notion had the respectable authority of Mr. Goschen to give it support, but it has even made less impression in Germany than in England.

The same conception of the causes of hard times has been vigorously pushed in this country, and it is worth while to ask what the advocates of the Goschen view have to say about the manifest and acknowledged revival of business that has set in during the present year. A remarkable variety of causes for the improvement have been put forward to explain this agreeable change. The latest one is that offered by Mr. Blaine in his speech at Houlton, in which he ascribed the revival of business to the defeat of the Morrison Tariff Bill. Other philosophic minds have held that it is due to the success of the Democratic party in the last national election. Still others ascribe it to the defeat of the Morrison surplus resolution. It may be, for anything we know, connected with the progress of civil-service reform, but we would not undertake to affirm this with any positiveness. One thing we do know, and that is that there have been no unexpected additions to the world's stock of gold in the past six months. The Gold Famine is just as intense now as it was last year and the year before. All the nations and governments are bidding against each other for possession of the yellow metal. Everything that was going on in the monetary world in the hard times is going on in the better times that have apparently come.

Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet, which has been reproduced in this country by the Messrs. Scribner, is, we believe, only the beginning of a literary campaign on the home-rule question on behalf of himself and his immediate followers. Others on the same topic will probably follow from the same quarter, and it is, we believe, in contemplation to issue a volume of essays from various writers, each dealing with a different phase of the Irish question. Mr. Gladstone is himself one of the few men who are equally powerful with the tongue and the pen; and probably his most effective work in winning over the English public to his Church disestablishment scheme, and in rousing its indignation over the Bulgarian intrigues, was done with the latter.

The first part of the pamphlet has comparatively little interest for the American reader, being mainly a defence against the charge made during the canvass by Lord Hartington, Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Bright, and others that Mr. Gladstone was either suddenly converted to home rule, or else had long entertained the idea but had concealed it from his colleagues. His answer is that he had long entertained the idea, but was not bound to make any formal communication on the subject to his colleagues until events had brought the question within the domain of practical politics. These points he fortifies with numerous quotations. The second part is, however, extremely interesting, if only as an example of Mr. Gladstone's wonderful skill in "putting things." The majority returned to the new House against home rule was, he says, 110, a large one undoubtedly, and this verdict was, Lord Salisbury said, irreversible. But the election of 1841 returned a majority of 91, pledged to the maintenance of the Corn Laws. That same House, however, repealed the Corn Law in 1846 by a majority of 98. Another example is the change of English opinion about the late civil war in America. Another ground of hope is the cessation since the election of all the Tory talk of further coercion, and the fact that the majority of the present House is avowedly ready to legislate in the direction of Irish wishes. Moreover, Scotland has approved of home rule by 3 to 2, Ireland by 4½ to 1, and Wales by 5 to 1. So that, of the four nationalities comprising the United Kingdom, three have approved of the Gladstonian policy. In England alone 129 votes in its favor were recorded against 336 opposed, and the minority came largely from the more intelligent regions, such as Yorkshire and Northumberland. This portion of the argument, which is worked out in considerable detail, is very effective, and takes in some degree the shape of a plea for home rule for all the four nationalities.

There has been nothing more lamentable in recent history than the way Prince Alexander has "gone back on" the journalists of both hemispheres; they being the only persons bound to publish their opinions from day to day. When he returned to Bulgaria he was made the object of unmeasured eulogy, which he almost immediately made a little ridiculous by his prompt abdication. The English press of all parties seems to be completely puzzled by the situation. Nobody even pretends to know what Prince Bismarck means by conniving at the Russian treatment of Alexander. The only thing certain in it is, that it shows that Bismarck does not care what England thinks. Some of the papers appear to be irritated by the theory that Austria is expecting Great Britain to pull her chestnuts out of the fire. There are signs, too, of preparation for the worst in the suggestion made by the *Standard*, that even if Russia does get Constantinople it will make her vulnerable in Europe and distract her attention from India. The disguise of this blessing is, however, very thin.

A series of experiments with the Pasteur method of inoculation for hydrophobia, made by Dr. Frisch of Vienna, leads the *Medical News* of Philadelphia to repeat that "there is as yet no good evidence that the application of the theory of Pasteur has rescued a single patient who without his intervention would have had hydrophobia." This is a very weighty judgment adverse to the conclusions of the French investigator, if they may be properly called his conclusions. The remarkable discoveries of Pasteur in other fields of study predisposed the learned world to accept his researches in hydrophobia for something more, perhaps, than the author himself claimed for them. In this light they were accepted by Dr. Frisch, a friend of Pasteur, "who had every reason to hope for a different result from that which he obtained." Dr. Frisch's experiments were conducted upon one definite line, and no other, that of inoculating animals with real hydrophobia, and then applying the Pasteur method of prevention. Only one rabbit and only one dog out of fifty or sixty animals experimented upon were saved, and upon these Dr. Frisch thinks that the inoculation did not "take."

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS

[WEDNESDAY, September 1 to TUESDAY, September 7, 1886, inclusive.

DOMESTIC.

THE earthquake of August 31st caused great destruction of property in Charleston, S. C. Seven-eighths of the houses in the city were rendered unfit for occupation, and fifty-seven people were killed, ten of whom were white. The damage to property is estimated at $8,000,000. Relief subscriptions have been started in many cities.

Another earthquake shock was felt all along the coast from Washington to Florida on Friday night, and inland as far at least as Williamsport, Pa. In Charleston it was very severe, and the panic thereupon renewed was as serious as ever. A large ruin in King Street was thrown to the ground with a crash, and several other tottering bits of masonry came down. A white woman, name unknown, was killed by a falling wall.

Several slight shocks occurred on Saturday and Sunday. The destitution of the people is wide-spread, and suffering is apprehended unless there is speedy and generous aid.

A slight shock of earthquake lasting five seconds was felt in Charleston on Tuesday morning, and two shocks in the afternoon. A shock was felt at Evansville, Ind., on the same day.

About $95,000 of relief money had reached Charleston by Monday, and it was believed that $500,000 would soon be received. Much alarm was caused on Monday by falling walls.

In a telegram dated Fort Bowie, Arizona, September 6, Gen. Miles says: "The hostile Apaches surrendered on the 4th to the troops in the field as prisoners of war. I arrived here last night with Geronimo, Natchez, and three others. Capt. Lawton brings in the remainder. All will be shipped out of this country about 2,000 miles east. I am also moving all from Fort Apache in the same direction."

It is now expected that further negotiations to secure a change in the law in Mexico, in consequence of the Cutting incident, will be suspended until October 1, the date when our new Minister, Mr. Manning, will enter upon his duties. Minister Jackson is already on his return to this country.

The following letter, signed by the President and officers and all the members of the Jockey Club of the City of Mexico, has been sent to Mr. A. G. Sedgwick: "We have received the letter which you have been pleased to direct to the members of this association, informing them of the false and shocking stories which have been put in circulation to discredit you, and commenting unfavorably on your behavior on the night of the 28th of the past month, on which date took place the ball given by this club. We take pleasure in saying in reply that we certify by means of this letter that we have not the slightest reproach to make to you or of your conduct, your behavior from the beginning to the end of the ball being that of a gentleman whose good manners, amiability, and courtesy won the esteem and sympathy of all whom you met. We hope that this may be useful to you, and that there may cease with it the causes which have brought the annoyance naturally felt by you on account of the telegrams which, we are told, have been sent to the press of the United States, and we are to sign ourselves your obedient and faithful servants."

The Illinois Republicans on Wednesday nominated John R. Tanner for State Treasurer. The platform opposes allowing non-resident aliens to become landowners, favors "protection of American labor," "arraigns" the Democratic Administration, and says: "Under this free republic, which is a Government 'by the people and for the people,' the disciples of anarchy can find no legitimate excuse for propagating their treasonable and disorganizing principles, and we denounce such propagandists as unworthy of citizenship; but we recognize the right of all men of every calling, organization, and association, to form to promote their mutual good and protection, and we favor such wise legislation as will protect the rights of all and promote that harmony which ought always to prevail between employed and employer."

The Missouri Republican Convention on Thursday nominated John Cravens for Supreme Judge, M. F. Butler for Superintendent of Public Instruction, and S. W. Crawford for Railroad Commissioner. The platform censures the President for his vetoes, arraigns the Democrats for broken promises, and favors protection. A resolution in favor of a prohibitory constitutional amendment caused a long debate, and a substitute as follows was adopted by a vote of 571 to 40: "Resolved, That whenever a respectable number of citizens of the State shall petition the Legislature for the submission of any proposition to amend, change, or modify the Constitution in any matter which is a proper subject of organic law, their request shall be granted."

The Indiana Republican State Convention on Thursday adopted a platform arraigning the national and State Administrations, favoring the principle of protection, bimetallism, and the steady reduction of the national debt, and approving a thorough and honest enforcement of the Civil-Service Law and "the extension of its principles to the State Administration wherever it can be made practicable, to the end that the corruption and flagrant abuses that exist in the management of our public institutions may be done away with, and they be liberated from partisan control." R. S. Robertson was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor.

The California Democrats on Friday nominated Washington Bartlett, Mayor of San Francisco, for Governor.

Forty-seven delegates attended the Republican Anti-Saloon Conference in Binghamton, N. Y., on Tuesday, almost all of them preachers and farmers. Not more than eighty persons were in the hall at any time. Resolutions were adopted in the way of pledging the party to submit a prohibition amendment to the people.

The election in Arkansas on Monday resulted in a victory for the Democratic ticket by the usual majority of 20,000.

The Republicans elected their State ticket in Vermont on Tuesday by about 18,000 majority. The movement against the reëlection of Senator Edmunds seems to have been a complete failure. Very few anti-Edmunds representatives were elected.

Gov. Pierce of Dakota has issued an order to Territorial officers, regents, directors of public institutions, and others, directing their attention to President Cleveland's order of July 14, and saying: "If this is right for officials holding Federal positions, it is right for those who hold places of trust and emolument under appointment from the Executive authority of the Territory. Such officers are therefore required to abstain from all officious intermeddling with primary meetings or conventions, and from assuming active conduct of political campaigns. If all officials will abstain from using the influence of their patronage in party nominations, leaving the people free and untrammelled to act as their wisdom directs, the public service will not suffer, but will be exalted."

Labor organizations paraded in great force in many of the large cities of the United States on Monday.

The creditors of the late Archbishop Purcell held another large meeting in Cincinnati on Sunday. They are getting desperate at the delays to which they have been subjected by the assignee, Mannix, and the courts. They began proceedings by demanding that Messrs. Miller and Tafel, the newly appointed trustees of the assigned property, shall collect rent from the church for all property mentioned in Purcell's assignment, including the cathedral, the archepiscopal residence, and various churches and schools, in all about $1,000,000. The creditors further demand that the trustees shall hold the moneys thus collected for their benefit until the court disposes of the case. A resolution was also adopted calling upon Irish Catholics everywhere to renounce and overthrow the secular power of the priests.

The first of the races for the *America's* Cup was on Tuesday won by the Boston yacht *Mayflower*. She was 12 minutes and 8 seconds ahead of the British cutter *Galatea*, by corrected time.

All the sick people at Biloxi, Miss., have recovered, and Surgeon Godfrey of the Marine Hospital has reported to Washington that he has failed to find any yellow fever there.

Gen. Lloyd Aspinwall of this city died on Saturday at the age of fifty-six. He led the Twenty-second New York Infantry during the Gettysburg campaign, and was commissioned Brigadier-General on December 1, 1865. He also commanded the First Division of the National Guard of New York.

FOREIGN.

The Bulgarian revolutionary troops on Wednesday occupied the heights of Sofia. The Loyalist troops surrounded them, compelled them to surrender, and then disarmed them placing the officers under arrest. Zankoff, the Russian who was the leading spirit in the revolution, was arrested, but his release was later ordered by Prince Alexander. The Prince on Wednesday arrived at Philippopolis and met with an enthusiastic reception.

Prince Alexander arrived at Sofia on Thursday and was received with enthusiasm. An attempt was made to wreck the train which carried him. The revolutionary regiments at Sofia on Friday surrendered unconditionally to Prince Alexander, and appealed to him for clemency.

On August 30 Prince Alexander sent the following telegram to the Czar through the Russian Consul at Rustchuk: "Sire: Having reassumed the government of Bulgaria, I venture to offer to your Imperial Majesty my most respectful thanks for the action of your Consul at Rustchuk, whose official presence at my reception showed to the Bulgarians that Russia did not approve of the revolution—an act directed at my person. I also thank your Imperial Majesty for despatching Prince Dolgoruki as Envoy Extraordinary to Bulgaria. My first act on resuming power is to assure your Majesty of my firm intention to make every sacrifice to forward your Majesty's magnanimous intention to extricate Bulgaria from the grave crisis through which she is passing. I beg of your Majesty that you will authorize Prince Dolgoruki to place himself in direct communication with myself as speedily as possible. I shall be happy to give your Majesty decided proofs of my unalterable devotion to your august person. Monarchical principle compelled me to restore the legality of my crown in Bulgaria and Rumelia. Russia having given me my crown, it is into the hands of Russia's sovereign I am ready to render it."

The Czar replied to Prince Alexander as follows: "I cannot approve of your return to Bulgaria, foreseeing from it sinister consequences for the country already so sorely tried. The mission of Prince Dolgoruki has become inexpedient. I shall abstain, so long as your Highness remains in Bulgaria, from any intervention in the sad condition to which the country is reduced. Your Highness must decide your own course. I reserve myself to judge what my father's venerated memory, the interests of Russia, and the peace of the East require of me." This reply created a sensation, as it was believed to indicate that Alexander must abdicate or fight.

The London *News* of Friday morning said: "Prince Alexander has been abandoned and isolated by agreement of the three empires. Nothing could exceed the humility of his letter

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to the Czar, which is only equalled in degree by the brutality of the Czar's answer. Everybody is discussing the unexpected early meeting of the German Reichstag. The pretext alleged for summoning the Reichstag—namely, to ratify the commercial treaty with Spain—is nowhere believed to be the true reason. Russian intervention in Bulgaria is confidently predicted within a week. The growing irritation of Austria, and Prince Bismarck's wish not to meddle with Russia, excite widespread uneasiness."

The *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ), referring to the articles of the Ultramontane and Liberal press regarding Prince Alexander, says: "Germany, unless she forthwith declared war against Russia, could only protest against any further interference with Alexander, or perhaps against Russia taking further steps in the direction of Constantinople. Russia would energetically repel the insinuation of such an intention, and Germany's friendly relations with Russia would be ended."

Prince Alexander on Saturday publicly announced his intention of abdicating the throne of Bulgaria. He made an affecting address to the officers of the army, in which he said: "I see around me officers who are devoted to me, and I can quit Bulgaria addressing praise to those officers, and with the conviction that order will not be disturbed. In whatever circumstances I might find myself I would place my influence at the service of Bulgaria. I will pray to God for her. My heart will ever be with my officers, and I shall be the first to ask to be admitted among them as a volunteer in a campaign for Macedonia. I cannot remain in Bulgaria, for the Czar will not permit me, because my presence is inimical to the country. I am forced to quit the throne. The independence of Bulgaria requires that I leave the country. If I did not, Russia would occupy it. I will, however, consult with the superior officers, and constitute a regency which will endeavor to protect the interests of my officers. In any case I rely on the army." He has issued a decree summoning the National Assembly for September 11. It is expected that he will go to England. Bulgarian officers favorable to the Prince held a meeting and decided to retain him by force. The news of Alexander's abdication created consternation in Vienna. German officers, also, are indignant against Russia. It is asserted that Emperor William proposed Alexander's telegram to the Czar as the best means of effecting a reconciliation, and that the Czar's reply was, therefore, a direct blow at the Emperor. On the other hand, it is asserted that Bismarck recommended the abdication. It is feared that the departure of the Prince will result in civil war.

MM. Stambuloff and Radoslavoff appeared at the Russian consulate in Sofia on Monday, and in the name of the Government demanded —First, the name of the candidate for the Bulgarian throne whom Russia favors; secondly, a formal promise that Russia will not occupy Bulgaria; thirdly, that the present constitution be maintained, the freedom of Bulgaria respected, and the country allowed to manage its domestic affairs; and fourthly, that if Russia send a general to Bulgaria, he must act merely as Minister of War and organize the army under Bulgarian, not under Russian officers. These demands were telegraphed to St. Petersburg. In the House of Commons on Monday night the Under Foreign Secretary stated that a change in the Government of Bulgaria could only occur in accordance with the Treaty of Berlin and with the consent of the Powers signatory to that treaty. England, he said, had no separate interests in reference to Bulgaria. The election of a new Prince of Bulgaria must be unanimous. The Government, said the speaker, had hoped much from the ability and great qualities of Prince Alexander, and they deplored the treachery and violence which had interrupted his reign.

Bulgarian notables sent a petition to the Czar asking whether Russia would allow the National Assembly to elect a successor to Prince Alexander, and whether Russia would grant Bulgaria a loan.

The Czar has accepted the proposals made by the Bulgarian notables as the conditions of the Prince's abdication. He will recognize the regency, the union of Bulgaria and Rumelia, and the independence of the country, and will appoint a Russian military plenipotentiary resident at Sofia. MM. Stambuloff, Karaveloff, and Mutkuroff constitute the Regency Council. The Stambuloff Cabinet has resigned, and a new Ministry has been formed with M. Radoslavoff for Premier and Minister of the Interior. Prince Alexander has started for the frontier. The Bulgarian Government has asked the Powers to guarantee Russia's promises.

It is stated that Russia continues her endeavors to form an alliance with Turkey. The Bulgarian Government has offered Prince Alexander the sum of 3,000,000 francs. The Prince refused to accept more than 500,000 francs. Russia has also offered Alexander money for his personal wants.

It is rumored in Constantinople that, in accordance with advice given by two friendly Powers, Turkey is making military preparations on the Asiatic frontier. It is also said that orders have been given to supply the army in Erzerum and along the border with additional guns, stores, and munitions. This activity is due to movements on the part of Russia, which is supposed to be making efforts to gauge the military and naval strength of Turkey.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday evening Mr. Sexton moved his amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech. He denied that he had acted contentiously. He charged that the riots in Belfast had been conceived and prosecuted in the interests of the present Government. He demanded that the Government restore order in Belfast now, and not await the results of a protracted inquiry by a commission. He asked Lord Randolph Churchill what the Government proposed to do to induce Protestant employers of Belfast to fulfil their duty, and reëmploy the Catholics they had discharged. It was impossible, said Mr. Sexton, to connect these riots with the question of home rule. With or without home rule, he declared, riots would ensue unless the Government brought those who had incited disorder to book by the use in Ireland of public forces, promptly and decisively, as they were used in Hyde Park, London, Amsterdam, Chicago, and elsewhere. Lord Randolph Churchill's Belfast speech, Mr. Sexton asserted, had tended to excite a spirit of disloyalty among the people, and he believed that the riots were got up in order to influence the division on the Home Rule Bill in the House of Commons, and to affect the result of the general elections. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Chief Secretary for Ireland, denied absolutely that Lord Randolph Churchill's action had in anywise led to the Belfast troubles.

On Thursday night the debate on Mr. Sexton's amendment was continued with considerable warmth. The remarks of Maj. Saunderson (Cons.) were especially bitter. Mr. Sexton's amendment was finally rejected by a vote of 225 to 128. The address was adopted in Committee without division.

In the House of Commons on Friday night Mr. Labouchere moved an amendment declaring that Lord Randolph Churchill's speech in Belfast was calculated to provoke breaches of the law and ought to be withdrawn. He insisted that Churchill was morally answerable for the killing and wounding of so many persons in Belfast. Maj. Saunderson moved an amendment to Mr. Labouchere's amendment, denouncing the presence of British subjects at the recent Irish Convention in Chicago, calling attention to the statement freely made that some Commoners avowed that they had taken the Fenian oath, and declaring that if this statement were true the members in question should be severely censured. Lord Randolph Churchill said the Government would oppose both amendments. The matters alleged in Maj. Saunderson's amendment, he said, were in no wise pertinent to the speech from the throne, and a discussion of the amendment would only still further waste the time of the House. Mr. Saunderson's amendment was rejected without a division. Mr. Labouchere's amendment was rejected by a vote of 202 to 119. The House then agreed to the report of the address.

Mr. Parnell will soon introduce a bill intended to stand between the landlords and the tenants during the winter. Though the Government will not forward this bill, it will doubtless see the advantage in letting Mr. Parnell state his case. The latter will draft the bill on the lines of his recent speech in the House, giving power to the county courts to suspend evictions absolutely on payment by the tenant of two-thirds of the next rent into the court, providing the tenant makes a legal statement of his inability to pay in full. He will submit the bill to the Gladstonian leaders before introducing it

Mr. Parnell, it was reported, had come to terms with the Government, and arranged to withdraw that part of his Land Bill which relates to revaluation in exchange for the Government's acceptance of the part relating to the suspension of evictions. On the other hand, it is said that the Government will discuss it, but also oppose it.

Lord George Hamilton, First Lord of the Admiralty, replying to interrogatories in the House of Commons on Friday, denied that any agent of the United States had access, through the firm of Sir William Armstrong & Co., to the designs for naval vessels under confidential consideration by the British Government.

The Right Hon. Cecil Raikes, Postmaster-General, stated in the House of Commons on Thursday that the Government were prepared to consider tenders for mail service across the Atlantic by way of Galway, and had under consideration the establishment of a mail route from Ireland by way of British North America to India and the Far East.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* declares that England will abandon the island of Port Hamilton, off the coast of Corea, because of the conviction that its occupation would prove a source of weakness in time of war.

Sir J. Fergusson, in the House of Commons on Tuesday night, denied that the Government had decided to abandon the island of Port Hamilton.

Samuel Morley, the British philanthropist, is dead at the age of seventy-seven. He was for many years the champion of Protestant non-conformity in England. He has represented Bristol in Parliament since 1868. As a business man he was very successful, being the head of a firm of wholesale hosiers. He has given more than $100,000 of his wealth yearly to charity and benevolent objects. He has written much, advocating equal rights for all men and reforms for the working classes.

In the deciding heat on Wednesday of the International Sculling Sweepstakes, on the Thames course, William Beach of Australia defeated John Teemer of the United States.

A long reply in behalf of Canada to the case presented by the United States on the seizure of the Gloucester fishing schooner *David J. Adams* has been filed in the Vice-Admiralty Court at Halifax. The Attorney-General denies that "the bait was to be used in fishing in the open sea or on the Banks, and outside and beyond said bays and harbors or said three marine miles or said limits and dominions; and in respect to the remaining allegations in denial of the allegations of the petition, he denies each and every one of them."

The American schooner *Highland Light* was seized on Wednesday near East Point, Prince Edward Island, by the Canadian cruiser *Houlette* for fishing inside the three-mile limit.

Advices from the provinces of Sechuen and Cochin China show that the natives are massacring Christians by wholesale. Whole villages occupied by Christians have been destroyed.

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EARTHQUAKE THEORIES.

WHILE the South is suffering from earthquake shocks, the North is having a terrible visitation from earthquake theories; they attack the brain and produce a more or less serious mental deterioration. The earthquakes centring in the Carolinas have been ascribed to sunspots, to lunar action, and to the linear pull of a string of planets; to the earthquakes in Greece; to volcanic action, to chemical action, to electric action. Hardly any attention is given to the simplest and most natural of all explanations, and only the most cautious theorists venture to suggest that the Carolina earthquakes are due to earthquakes in Carolina. Yet this seems to be a very rational suggestion, and the grounds for the exclusion of the other causes are easily appreciated. Earthquakes have long been studied in many lands, and a very satisfactory understanding of them has been reached: they are neither solar, planetary, nor electrical, but are of definite mechanical origin in the earth. Several sufficient causes have been suggested for them in close conformity with other results of geological investigation. There is no need of wandering about in search of new, vague, unverifiable hypotheses, at least until the explanations now current with seismologists are proved incorrect.

The arguments in favor of control external to the earth are all based on approximate coincidence of occurrence between the terrestrial effect and the distant hypothetical cause. This line of argument is certainly a venerable one: it has been followed ever since it occurred to man that facts needed explanations. It is perhaps worth while to state seriously the grounds for excluding all the heavenly bodies from a significant share in terrestrial disturbances—the grounds of what might be called the "cosmical Monroe doctrine." External causes of earthquakes must be effective only as they can pull one part of the earth more than another, and thus distort it so far as to produce cracks and tremors. It is perfectly well understood that this "differential attraction" diminishes as the *cube* of the distance of the attracting body; and if our readers will take the trouble to perform the rather long but easy arithmetical computations to this end, they will find that the moon is more powerful in this respect than all the other bodies of the universe together. Even the enormous mass of the sun does not make up for his distance, the solar differential attraction being only about one-third that of the moon, while that of the planets is absolutely insignificant. Earthquakes should, therefore, follow lunar cycles if periodic at all; but it may be most confidently asserted that lunar cycles are hardly visible in the occurrence of earthquakes. Perrey and Mallet have definitely settled that question. Moreover, if the moon has any effect, it can only be in touching off a mechanism whose potential energy is due to terrestrial action; and even in this limited way it is not of much importance, if any, for the earth does not quake most where the highest tides occur. Earthquakes are localized by purely terrestrial, geological structure, and are in the great majority of cases caused by volcanic or by mountain-making forces.

The explanation of the Carolina earthquakes by the shocks in Greece is in one respect like the theory of external causes. It is not satisfied with anything that involves long local preparation, but refers the whole process to an immediate cause, and is done with it. It is a representative of the theory of special creations in the inorganic world, and takes no sufficient account of the gradual development that is just as visible in the present conditions of the earth as in the present forms of its inhabitants. There may be, indeed, a germ of truth in the Grecian idea: it is possible that Carolina had got into a touch-and-go equilibrium, and only a little urging was needed to set it off. But there has not yet been presented any independent verification of this open suggestion, and no one ought to be excommunicated for withholding belief in it. As to the Carolina earthquake being a direct effect of the shock in Greece, that is utterly incredible. The line of shortest distance from Greece to Carolina passes Nova Scotia and Cape Cod; why, then, did not New England, on this hypothesis, feel the shock sooner and stronger, instead of later and fainter, than the Carolinas? No; this earthquake is a home product. It began nearest to the point where it was first felt, and the Carolinas must not try to shirk the responsibility by throwing it off on Greece.

Volcanoes and earthquakes are so commonly associated that the reporters may well be excused for finding signs of eruption in every crack in the ground that gives forth bad-smelling water and mud. Lyell is, perhaps, in part responsible for this confusion of ideas, for, in his 'Principles of Geology,' sand and water phenomena very similar to those that now characterize the district about Charleston, are regarded as of decidedly volcanic aspect. But, as a matter of fact, these pseudo-eruptions are too cool and superficial to be compared with true volcanic eruptions from deep sources and at high temperatures. They have been carefully studied in connection with different earthquakes, notably in India and in Austria, and are sufficiently explained as the bursting up of shallow underground water, when crowded by the passage of the earthquake wave. As such, they are trivial, secondary phenomena—effects and not causes of the disturbance. There is not a single feature in the recent earthquake, so far as it is reported, that bears the least tinge of volcanic action; for while it is perfectly true that the bursting out of imprisoned lavas does cause the earth to tremble about their vent, it is also true that other processes within the earth are competent to cause quakings on its surface. The recent studies of the Swiss Earthquake Commission have proved this to demonstration. Earthquakes are very common in the Alps, and are definitely referred to known lines of structural dislocation there; volcanic action is utterly absent. Indeed, when one regards the wonderful distortion of the rocks exposed in mountainous regions, and admits (as he must) that similar distortions may still be in progress in one place or another, it is not a little singular to find that mountain-making has until lately held no very prominent place among the causes of earthquakes. But it holds the first place now; it is of all causes the most competent to the end, and the best accordant with the general relations of earthquakes. It is very probable that the greatest number of earthquakes in all parts of the world are of orogenic origin, and the known geological structure of our Atlantic slope gives good reason for including not only the recent shocks, but all the recorded earthquakes of the region, under this class. Still, at the present writing, it is premature to say even so much as this, and it is better to wait till the Geological Survey has accumulated the facts before theorizing upon them.

Chemical and electrical hypotheses are so gratuitous that they are hardly worth discussion. Electricity may with justice complain of much thoughtless treatment in this way: comets' tails and sunspots, cyclones and tornadoes, and now even earthquakes have been attributed to it—not to the known action of electricity, to be sure, but to the unknown. It is so mysterious an agent that it is called on to do all sorts of work. It is perhaps significant that those who thus call on it are as a rule not electricians (in the physical, not telegraphic sense of the word); and that those most expert in this branch of science are the most cautious in evolving electrical hypotheses.

A few exact records of the time at which the earthquake was felt in various parts of the country would have done more to advance our knowledge of it than all the premature hypotheses that it has evolved. It would be possible at least to learn pretty closely where it began, beneath what point, and at what depth below the surface; and then the geological structure of its origin might be examined, and some basis for theorizing be discovered. Let the newspapers, therefore, give more emphasis first to the importance of the immediate record of the hour, minute, and second at which the shock is felt; and, second, to the necessity of prompt comparison of the timepiece from which the record is made with accurate railroad time. It is not the lack of good watches, intelligence, or presence of mind that prevents such records; there are thousands of men in the country able and glad to make them if they only knew it was worth the trouble, and that it would lead to any desirable end. Direction of oscillation is of secondary importance; violence of shock can easily be described from memory; nothing else is of so great importance as the hour, minute, and second at which every shock begins, culminates, and ends. Faint tremors deserve as careful record as destructive shocks; they may be destructive somewhere else. It is rather late to shut the stable door when the horse is stolen; but in studying earthquakes there is no better time for calling attention to the mode of recording them than just when the whole country is astir over a big one. When the next one comes, a community should be ranked by the number of good time records as well as by the number of relief dollars that it furnishes.

REMOVAL OF THE APACHES FROM ARIZONA.

Now that the news comes that Geronimo is really captured, and that he and his immediate following will be sent East, the question of the removal of the whole tribe will naturally be revived. Since 1882, and even previously to that

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year, the Southwestern press and people have clamored for a removal of the Apaches to some distant place, where they might be either so hemmed in by populous surroundings as to render them powerless, or else so isolated as to make it almost impossible for them to reach civilized settlements. In either case they intended to get the Indians out of the way—good-naturedly, by persuasion and treaty, if possible, forcibly if necessary.

The people of Arizona are not to blame for this. The Apaches have never been very desirable neighbors, though they are far from being as fierce and untamable as is often alleged; and if some sympathy is wasted on them by Eastern philanthropists, there is also a great deal of exaggerated antipathy towards them. Of course we are speaking only of the main tribe. The Chiricahuas are a distinct band, in whose case the only method of redemption is indicated by the Spanish proverb: "Muerto el perro, se muere la rábia." Lately a demand for the removal en masse of the Apaches seems to have reached the official ear at Washington, and high officials are said to look favorably upon the measure. It matters not where the Apaches are removed to, once the transfer is achieved; but the question is a serious one whether or not it is advisable to attempt it at all. It is even doubtful if the people of the Southwest would be benefited by it.

No matter how many councils may have been held with "chiefs" and "old men" at Washington or elsewhere, and how positively this or that "prominent" Apache may have expressed himself in favor of a change of abode, such individual utterances have no official value, no binding effect upon the whole tribe. One chief may have been duly authorized by his "rancheria" to make certain pledges, and the rancheria may be disposed to fulfil them. Several chiefs will thus faithfully and truthfully represent a portion or a majority even of the tribe; yet their promises do not go beyond their immediate constituents, if that term can be used. There is not, at the present time, among the Apaches one leading spirit of sufficient religious preponderance to persuade or coerce them into joint action. Neither is there a group of principal men whose influence is felt all over the tribe, and who work harmoniously together, as, for instance, Manuelito, Mariano, and their relatives, among the Navajos, or old San Juan and Patricio among the Mescaleros. Three-fourths might consent to the removal, while one-fourth would stubbornly refuse to go. What then? To coerce this fourth means an Indian war, more desperate and far more destructive than that with Geronimo and his handful of cut-throats. It means the ruin of southern Arizona and of southwestern New Mexico.

But it is not even certain that any considerable number of the Apaches are in favor of leaving their reservation, unless they should be transferred to some of their old homes on the Mimbres, on the Upper Gila, or near old Fort Tularosa. These localities are not yet thickly settled, though occupied by a sufficient number of whites to call forth a very lively and well-grounded protest against an eventual neighborhood of wild Indians. Besides, all these places lie in southwestern New Mexico, not far from the Arizona line, and the change would be similar to "moving" from New York to Hoboken, or from Cincinnati to Covington. On the other hand, any attempt to coerce the Apaches into settlement at a greater distance might easily result, not in a partial, but in a *general* war, which would throw 1,000 to 2,000 armed Indians upon defenceless settlements, upon unprotected ranches, mines, and even towns. True, such an outbreak could not fail to settle the Apache question forever in course of time, but at what cost! Military experience has shown that large bodies of savages can easily be defeated, yet after the Indians are whipped their real warfare begins. It is not in the interest of the Southwest to provoke such a calamity.

Nevertheless, if the Apaches were only removed from their present location, and even if they were settled just across the border, in New Mexico, the people of Arizona would be satisfied. Why? Because the real cause of their clamor is not constant dread of outbreaks; it is a desire on their part to own the lands now constituting the White Mountain and San Carlos Reservation. The Apaches are not half as dangerous as they appear. They very seldom molest any one who does not molest them, and, under Gen. Crook's supervision, they have entered the path of timid progress. Why should that progress be interrupted for the benefit of others? Their reservation is partly a beautiful country. Its northern half is mountainous. Wide plateaus, covered with beautiful pine timber and fairly watered, surround the central peaks of the Sierra Blanca. In the west and northwest there are some valleys of rare beauty and fertility, as around Fort Apache, on the Carrizo and at Shibicu. Those spots certainly look very desirable. The Southern section, however, the San Carlos country proper, is hot and frequently arid; its mountains are forbidding in appearance and mostly dry. Even the Apache dislikes this part of his present home, and wishes to be removed from it, but not to Florida nor to the Indian Territory. A child of the mountains, high and *dry*, he could not prosper among swamps or in lowlands. His objections to removal are not based upon any knowledge of countries beyond his own. If he should refuse to go, it would be on the ground of Indian conservatism, which it is so difficult to overcome, of Indian religious ideas and beliefs, which will compel him to resist to the bitter end.

There is another reason why the Apache reservation is coveted by its neighbors. It contains coal measures, which the mining interests of the Globe districts may need. Such mines could be opened and worked without prejudice to the Indians, to whom they are of no value, and it is not necessary to drive them from their soil in order to secure the coal. The mines might be leased, and the result would soon tell how far they are desirable. If Globe must have the combustible (of which there is hardly any doubt), and that combustible is there in sufficient quantity and satisfactory quality, the demand for opening up its seams appears legitimate. It can be satisfied without injuring the Apaches. But the Government should not yield rashly to importunities having in view the removal of a large tribe, irrespective of possible disaster to citizens. Neither should it suffer individual utterances of men who represent only tribal fractions to seduce it into any action. Only when there is ample evidence of the fact that the Apaches collectively are willing to go can their removal begin. It will then be beneficial, because it can be effected peaceably.

COQUETTING WITH ANARCHY.

CAN there be such a reorganization of society as will place the employers of labor under the feet of the wage-earners, merely because the latter are, or are supposed to be, superior in numbers to the former? In Great Britain the wage-earners are estimated to be three-fourths of the entire people, and in the United States they may be more or less than half. Conceding, for the argument, that the wage-workers in the United States are or may become the greater number, is it in the power of numbers to effect an economic reorganization of society such as is predicted by Mr. Thomas Davidson, a so-called "philosophic Socialist," in the New York *Sun*? He says:

"But besides all these facts, tending to turn the condemned Anarchists into martyrs should their sentence be carried out, there is another and more momentous fact to which it is impossible to give too much heed. There exists in every civilized land at present an irresistible tendency, in large measure justified, towards a new economic reconstruction of society; and the crimes of these men are but the natural results of the action of this tendency upon thoughtless, impetuous, and misguided natures. With this tendency, even in its worst expressions, it is wise to deal cautiously, lest in our ignorant precipitancy we, too, should turn out to be Anarchists, resisting a law higher than human. We cannot stop the tendency; at best we can but guide it to its goal with a minimum of disturbance to society and morals."

Now we peremptorily deny that there is any tendency anywhere towards an economic reconstruction of society, or that any such economic reconstruction is one whit more possible than would be a reconstruction of physical nature, so that the skies should be pea-green and the foliage on the trees sky-blue. Nothing of the kind is coming, has begun to come, or could be brought about by any manifestations of physical force or any unanimity of social consent. If an economic reconstruction of society were going on in the direction of socialism, there would be somewhere visible proofs of the fact, for society is the most visible of all things. The striking workers would be buying factories and starting car lines, buying stock in railroads; and on the other hand townships and counties would be surrendering their lands, heretofore held by private owners, into a communal ownership, under which each one would apply for his annual allotment, as is done in the *mir* or rural commune of Russia. The watering-place hotels would be passing under control of the chambermaids and waiters. The great mercantile houses would become democratic associations of salesmen and bookkeepers. Steamships would be owned by their crews, and their "captains" would be selected by ballot. Banks, mines, and farms would all be showing the same drift.

But, in fact, never was there less tendency among workingmen and women towards dispensing with "bosses" in production. The collarmakers of Troy lost in a six weeks' strike

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wages enough to have built, equipped, and started a better collar factory than Troy contained, but they did not make a single collar while on strike. The Third Avenue strikers ran a line of free stages against the car line, into whose cash box those who rode dropped their voluntary contributions, thus resolving themselves into an association of alms and not of workers for pay. Where, then, are the evidences that an economic reconstruction of society is going on? Almost the sole experiment in Socialism of any moment now on trial is that of M. Godin at Guise, in France, who starts with an ample fortune, as did Robert Owen, and the outcome of whose experiment cannot yet be predicted. The war of the cranks upon capital, based on the extremely crude, barbarous, and anti-social wrong-headedness of Karl Marx and his followers, is no more a tendency towards economic reconstruction than the similar predictions of William Miller, and the craze which ensued among his followers, were a tendency of the world to come to an end.

It is to be regretted that a few college professors and preachers should be caught by the "new dispensation" chaff, and should say the many ridiculous things they do. President Adams of Cornell, for instance, presides over a university which was built and endowed out of "surplus profits" of the telegraph business. Hence he seems to have become strongly impressed with the notion that the class of profits to which he owes his position should be abolished. He, therefore, in a labored essay on the "Sphere of State Interference in Industry," adopts the shibboleth of the Socialists that taxation should be used as an engine to cut down profits. He holds that the Legislature should classify all industries for taxation into those in which capital will yield a continually increasing return, those in which it will yield a moderate return, and those in which it will yield the minimum of return. The first he holds should be taxed down to equality with the second. It is ludicrous that any professed teacher of economic science should conceive that a Legislature could classify industries in this manner. He might as well propose that wild geese in flight over the State should be taxed accordingly as they fly east, west, or south. Curiously enough, he selects farming as the business which could be classified as yielding moderate returns, whereas certain farms in Dakota and Wyoming, such as the Grandin and Dalrymple farms, have yielded a return of more than 100 per cent. per annum, while the railways, whose surplus profits he regards as a permanent fund for sumptuary taxation, did not for the first thirty years of our railway history pay interest on their cost, and had to be everywhere coaxed into existence as our colleges now are, by State, county, and municipal aid.

Prof. Ely of Johns Hopkins University has written a semi-Socialist history of 'Modern German and French Socialism,' in which he coquets with Anarchy, very much like the good woman who always bowed when Satan was mentioned, "not knowing into whose hands she might fall." He also declares, in *Harper*, that "the railways must be reduced to complete subjection to *us* as their masters," thereby assuming that the private capital invested in railways can be taken from the stockholders, if on a count of noses a majority shall favor it.

All the froth and frivolity of Socialistic agitation, however, is very far from indicating that the possessors of wealth are about to step down and out in behalf of those who have nothing. The real parties, if any, who have earned retirement, are the professorial and clerical Socialists who coquet with Anarchy, hoping thereby to get a larger sale for their own wares, instead of boldly and bluntly explaining to workingmen the fallacies that underlie the assumptions of their pet agitators. When capital loses its power over labor, the twenty-five cents of capital with which a laborer seeks to buy a meal in a restaurant will buy him nothing, for the act of buying a meal in a restaurant is merely a manifestation of the power of capital over labor. Though the poor man may choose not to class himself among capitalists, every use he makes of his wages when earned is an employment of capital to control labor and labor products. If society could be so reconstructed on the basis of State Socialism that the State would insure to all a support, then simultaneously with the fall in the value of capital would come the annihilation of the present value of labor, for nobody could get paid for rendering services which the State guarantees shall be rendered to all for nothing. Under State Socialism no money could have value, because money implies that there are those who need it, and Socialism, in promising that no need shall exist, virtually promises that no money shall exist. But where no money can exist society is remitted to one of two alternatives, idleness or slavery—the torpor of Africa or the bondage of Egypt. This is the kind of millennium the professorial and clerical Socialists are coquetting with.

MR. GLADSTONE'S WORK AND PLAY.

LONDON, August 26.

MR. GLADSTONE, who is as energetic a holiday maker as he is a worker, has betaken himself to the high lands of Bavaria. But he has distinguished himself in parting, and he has left behind him a bomb which will explode next Saturday. The bomb which Mr. Gladstone has left behind him is the pamphlet which will be issued on Saturday by Mr. Murray on the Irish question. The fidelity with which Mr. Gladstone sticks to his old Tory publisher is a remarkable instance of his regard for early associations. Nearly half a century has passed since Mr. Gladstone, then, as Lord Macaulay describes him, the hope of the stern and unbending Tories who distrusted Sir Robert Peel, gave to the world through Mr. Murray his essay on 'The State in its Relations with the Church.' The orthodox Tory volumes which occupy the counters and line the shelves of the great house in Albemarle Street must feel a flutter pass through their leaves in the presence of these revolutionary manifestoes.

Mr. Gladstone's visit to Germany is paid to Lord Acton, who has a seat on the Tegernsee, in the Bavarian Alps, between Munich and Innsbruck. Mr. Gladstone will have during this visit the rare experience of finding himself in the society of a man more minutely and more variously learned than himself. Some of Mr. Gladstone's intimate personal friends complain that he has the inconvenient habit of lying concealed behind a book or newspaper, apparently absorbed in it, and suddenly emerging to ask the authority for some too rashly hazarded statement or the reason for some doubtful opinion. With Lord Acton Mr. Gladstone himself will have to be on his guard. Lord Acton is, as no doubt many of your readers know, one of the few English or Irish Catholics—Sir Rowland Blennerhassett is another—who, sympathizing with the Döllinger school of theologians, have yet declined formally to join the Old Catholic movement. He was the founder and main supporter of the *Home and Foreign Review*, the *Chronicle*, and other journals which were allowed to advocate Liberal Catholicism for a short time, and were then suppressed. It is understood that the *English Historical Review*, now in its third quarterly number, owes its existence to his encouragement and munificence. Not being a Roman Catholic magazine, it is safe from the Church.

Lord Acton's family is curiously entangled, so to speak, in Continental alliances. Sprung from an old cavalier stock—the first baronet received the title as a reward of his fidelity to Charles the First—it has now become as much Italian or German as English. The grandfather of the present Lord Acton, the sixth baronet, was an adventurer of a type scarcely known in our time. His career, in the course of which he was Prime Minister of the two Sicilies and Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Army and Navy, is as remarkable as that of Alberoni or Ripperda, and as little creditable in some respects. The son of this adventurer, and the father of the present Lord Acton, married the heiress of the Duc de Dalberg, and she became the wife in second nuptials of the present Earl Granville. But for this alliance, which brought him as a child of five or six years of age to England, Lord Acton might have remained an Italian subject. Younger members of his family are at present, or have lately been, Senators and Ministers of Marine, and otherwise engaged in the public service of Italy. Lord Acton himself has married a daughter of the Count Cerco-Vallay of Bavaria. If Lord Acton had anything like Mr. Gladstone's impulse of expression or of his grandfather's impulse to action, a great name might have been added to the history of our time. As it is, Lord Acton's achievements have been confined to the collection of perhaps the finest library in England, and to the mastery of all the learning that it contains.

Mr. Gladstone will no doubt have opportunities of discussing German theology and Irish politics with Dr. Döllinger, his master in the former and his adversary in the latter. For the moment, however, Irish politics are in abeyance; and a Bulgarian outrage, as atrocious though not so bloody as the outrages which raised his indignation eight or ten years ago, revives the perpetual Eastern question. The saying of an old diplomatist, that kings have no cousins, is probably as false as any saying which any diplomatist, old or young, ever uttered. It was a family question, the nomination of a Hohenzollern to the throne of Spain, which gave occasion to the Franco-German war; it was also a family question, that of the Spanish marriages, which contributed to the fall of Louis Philippe and to the convulsions of the Peninsula; and the family compact of the two branches of the Bourbons and the division of kingdoms among the Bonaparte house were elements in the embroilment of Europe. It is scarcely a secret that the court had much to do with the policy of Lord Salisbury in supporting the union of the two Bulgarias, the separation of which was the great achievement of himself and Lord Beaconsfield in the

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Treaty of Berlin. Prince Henry of Battenberg, the husband of our Princess Louise, is the brother of Prince Alexander, whose continuing or vanished title to be called Prince of Bulgaria will probably be decided in a few days or weeks. Prince Henry of Battenberg has succeeded, it is understood, to the position of confidence and affection near the Queen which no member of her family has fully occupied since the death of the Prince Consort, and her Majesty is understood to share the sympathy with which he viewed his brother's gallant enterprise in Bulgaria. A granddaughter of the Queen's, one of the daughters of the Crown Prince of Germany, is said to have found the hero of her girlish fancy in the gallant Prince, whose fortunes she has followed (in the journals) with enthusiasm.

The interposition of the Emperor and Bismarck, who do not wish to see the conference of Gastein hampered by more tender interviews, has, it is said, found it expedient to interpose with considerations of state policy. Whatever may happen in the domestic sphere, it is probable that not only Bulgaria but Turkey too is doomed. Bismarck is indifferent. Russia may have Bulgaria and even Constantinople if she chooses; Austria will pass, if Buda-Pesth does not block the designs of Vienna, through Bosnia and Herzegovina to Salonica; Greece will enlarge her frontier—and all this while Mr. Gladstone was fancying that he had found salvation in the phrase the European Concert, and Lord Salisbury was babbling about the maintenance of the Turkish Empire.

THE DUC D'HARCOURT'S REFLECTIONS.

PARIS, August 26, 1886.

I SPOKE lately of a work by the Duc de Noailles on American institutions. I have now before me a work by another French duke, the Duc d'Harcourt, entitled 'Some Reflections on Social Laws.' I will say something first of the author. He is the head of the eldest branch of the French Harcourts (there is a branch in England, one of whose members is Sir William Harcourt), and he owns the ancestral château of Harcourt. He was educated at the Polytechnic School, and served in the war of 1870 as an officer of artillery. After the war he was elected Deputy to the Constituant Assembly. He was still young and did not take any part in the debates, except on military matters. He belonged to the monarchical party, but he showed great firmness of character and did not enlist under any parliamentary chief. He was an independent, and for this reason probably was not reëlected to the present Chamber. He is now living in retirement in the province, and the book which he gives us was written away from Paris and from its political atmosphere.

"Circumstances," says the Duc d'Harcourt, at the opening of his work, "having made me a deputy about ten years ago, the spectacle of the political struggles in which I had, willingly or unwillingly, to take part, notwithstanding my inexperience, inspired me with the desire to study the political science which was supposed to direct my votes. I had never been engaged in this study before. People will tell me that it would have been better to begin this study sooner, and, as my vote might be useful or harmful to millions of human beings, it would have been wise and honest to know their affairs before deciding on them. I confess it, but the reader will, I hope, be as indulgent to me as the French are to those to whom they confide the task of government."

Are there any laws for social phenomena as well as for physical phenomena? The individual, to be sure, remains free, and it is impossible to prophesy his action; but the will of a number of individuals can often be predicted, and in this respect it is possible to affirm that there are social laws. When I cross one of the bridges of Paris, I should be taxed with madness if I said that a man whom I meet is going to throw himself into the river and to commit suicide; but if I consult the statistics, I shall find that the average number of people who commit suicide every year by throwing themselves into the Seine remains nearly the same. What methods, asks the Duc d'Harcourt, ought to be employed in the study of social phenomena? In the study of physical phenomena the method is empirical, and you can organize and invent experiments. You cannot do so with mankind; you can only study past events. History becomes the only possible method, and no absolute demonstration is possible.

If you turn to history, you are met at once by many difficulties. Is history ever truly written?

"I have," says our author, "been an eye-witness and sometimes an actor—very subaltern, to be sure—in a certain number of the great events of the last thirty years. I have seen very near me some historical facts, and have been able to judge in what manner they were understood by contemporaries and transformed for written history. I remember, for instance, in what manner was prepared before me the report of Marshal MacMahon on the battle of Solferino. It was the very day after the battle; we were still on the summit of the hill where the struggle had ended. The Marshal told the general who was the head of his staff to prepare a report. The general ordered two of his officers to write it, and they set immediately to work. The work seemed easy. The field of battle was at our feet, and we embraced it all at a glance. All the officers who had carried the orders were together."

Nevertheless, when the report of the officers was brought to the General, he remonstrated and made objections. I need not go into details, but finally the report was so much altered that hardly anything remained of the original draft. So much for the value of historical documents. We have now a school of history which calls itself the documentary school; we would recommend this little story to its attention.

History—I mean written history—affords but an uncertain basis for social science. The Duc d'Harcourt candidly confesses that he only became conscious of his ignorance at the age of forty, after having been mixed up with politics and political men. He maintains that, without the knowledge of man, history gives insufficient data: the historian must be a moralist. "The knowledge of men is more useful for the understanding of history than the knowledge of history can be for the understanding of man." History and personal experience—these are the two best sources of information for the student of sociology. In his study, the Duc d'Harcourt begins by the analysis of the influence of personal interest, of egotism, on human societies. He first cites the words of the famous economist Bastiat, at the opening of his 'Harmonies économiques': "Personal interest is the principle of action of all men. From it, I confess, proceed all the social evils—war, slavery, monopoly, privilege; but from it also proceed all the good things, since the satisfaction of necessities and repugnance for pain are the motive powers of mankind." The Duc d'Harcourt does not admit this overruling influence of personal interest. He shows by many examples how it is counterbalanced by good as well as by evil passions, and especially by religious ideas and by the religious sentiment. He also analyzes the effects of what he calls "l'entraînement par l'exemple." I must quote him, to make him understood:

"Take a peasant, preach to him as much as you like how useful it would be for him, a thirty-six millionth of France, to go and defend the tricolor flag against the Mussulman countries of the Mediterranean coasts; he will not for an instant move from his plough. You take him by force, give him red trousers, comrades torn like himself from their fields and their affections, he goes gayly, and dies with intrepidity. . . . Similar phenomena are observed in all reunions—in the political assemblies composed of learned men, as well as in the tumultuous meetings of the populace, in deliberative assemblies as well as in great armies. . . . There is a real force in example, which defies analysis, as it never works alone. . . . In short, I find the following impulses in mankind: 1st, personal interest; 2d, religious and moral sentiments; 3d, the natural affections: 4th, the influence of example on the imitative instinct."

Successive chapters are consecrated to these various forces. The Duke first analyzes the effects of personal interest in the political field. He studies it on the electors, and notices that it has but little effect on the peasant elector, who expects nothing, or next to nothing, from society, from those who direct society, while it has a great influence on the elector in the cities, who expects everything from men. His description of a rural election is picturesque. He shows the peasants arriving with heavy steps, in small groups, and at long intervals, and putting, with an embarrassed air, a square little paper, folded in four, in the hands of the mayor. "At six o'clock in the evening, all is ended; the telegraph is at work all night, and the next day the papers announce to France and to Europe what is the will of the French people." The horizon of the rural elector is very narrow: it is the Commune, of which he knows all the houses and the inhabitants, and the Department, a collection of cities and villages, the names of which he has heard since his infancy. The Duc d'Harcourt gives curious examples of the electors' indifference to general ideas. The diffusion of newspapers will, he believes, counteract this natural indifference: but he is afraid that when the peasants fairly understand that their votes have an immediate influence on the military organization of the country, "the immense majority of them will only vote for candidates who will declare resolutely against every kind of standing army." It is curious to hear him say, "So far, in my part of the country, the inhabitants do not seem to feel that there is any relation between themselves and the Chamber of Deputies. It is a question of time, and I believe that a great change is preparing."

The Duc d'Harcourt is not an admirer of universal suffrage. When he comes to the electors of the towns, he shows them led away by high-sounding and vague programmes, indifferent to the morality of the persons whom they choose, caring but little about their disinterestedness, their private qualities, incapable of distinguishing a good policy from a bad policy. Leaving the electors and coming to the elected, he shows that his real duties are constantly at variance with his interest in keeping his popularity. If he follows the dictate of duty, his electors will lose sight of him, and if they understood his conduct, they would not appreciate it. In order to keep the popular favor, he must, in the Chamber, always occupy attention; in his electoral college he must subsidize the press and give favors to a few party leaders.

In order to show experimentally how things are managed in a French Chamber, the Duc d'Harcourt gives the detailed history of the elaboration of a law in the Chamber of Deputies, selecting a law on the administration of the army, prepared in 1873 by a grand commission of the Ministry of War, presented to the National Assembly in 1873, and only finally voted in 1877. The law, passed first without any change by the Senate, was sent to the Deputies and examined in the bureaus. Let us enter the bureau of the Duc d'Harcourt:

"This is how things go when there is a question of a military law, or in general of a law in which daily politics is not in question. Ten or twelve deputies (or forty-five) come into a room where there is a great table covered with a green cloth. Three or four sit down and write letters to their electors; two or three smoke silently in a

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corner, the rest in the windows. . . . The President, sitting before a zinc urn of an antique shape, is serious. The call is for one o'clock; at half-past one he looks at the clock and says solemnly, 'Gentlemen, I am afraid we shall not be more numerous; don't you think that we might begin the deliberation?' There is a mute assent; the pens continue to glide over the paper, the clouds of smoke to rise. Then comes the deliberation, which is no deliberation at all; the bureaus have each to elect a commissaire, and all the commissaires together appoint a reporter. There is often no candidate. 'Gentlemen,' says the President, 'I beg you to nominate a commissaire.' Somebody nominates a republican colleague, who is smoking at the end of the room. 'Why,' says this gentleman, 'I don't know the question at all; anybody would do better than myself.' 'You will study it; you are *too modest*; do accept.' And he accepts, and the same ceremony begins for some other law; and this is how the laws go through the first stage, the deliberation in the bureaus."

I cannot follow the Duc d'Harcourt in the details of the discussion of the law by the commissaires. The end of it is that, of the military law—a very elaborate law, which had no less than 299 articles—50 articles (all containing some innovation) were voted without being even read, and full powers were given to a sub-committee to make all the necessary modifications. These gentlemen remained away about ten minutes, and, when they returned, they found that the commission had voted the whole law *en bloc*. This is not all. On the day of the final vote on the law in the Chamber, all the members of the commission voted against it, with the exception of the reporter whom the commission had charged with the defence of it. The Minister of War begged them to bring in a bill of their own, and a whole year was spent before the matter came again before the Chamber.

There is a class of men who seem to be independent of the caprice of the multitude—the functionaries. Their power is derived only indirectly from the people. The Duc d'Harcourt studies in turn the obscure functionaries of the bureaus, the innumerable receivers of taxes, the prefects and sub-prefects, the military, whose promotion is not arbitrary, but subject to strict laws. He passes a severe criticism on the ambition of some, the servility of others; his conclusion is this: "The efforts of individuals do not concur in procuring the good of society if they are not inspired by moral principles; and personal interest is not a sufficient force." The second part of the book is the analysis of the intellectual forces which have to play their part in a well-organized society; and the Duc d'Harcourt places above all the religious sentiment.

Correspondence.

A CARD FROM MR. SCHUYLER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After your statement of the result of your search for the nominations made by Mr. Washburne, published in your number for July 29—which, I must admit, greatly surprised me—nothing remains but for me to express my very great regret at the appearance in my 'American Diplomacy' of the erroneous paragraph. My publishers have been requested to cancel it in copies still for sale.

What I said was solely from the point of view of the good of our service, and I had no intention of accusing Mr. Washburne of any moral obliquity. In the interest of civil-service reform it is gratifying to note that a wholesale removal of officials, which twenty years ago was considered by politicians as not only justifiable but praiseworthy, now meets with general reprobation.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

Eugene Schuyler.

Alassio, Italy, August 21, 1886.

THE SPRINGFIELD (ILL.) POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Through the columns of the *Nation* I desire to call attention to a notorious instance of violation of the spirit, if not of the letter, of the Civil-Service Law. I allude to the discharge, by the newly appointed Postmaster of Springfield, Ill., of the whole force of letter-carriers employed in that office, and the filling of their places by stanch Democrats. As a consequence, most of the mail is delivered two hours later than ever before, and the weekly list of uncalled-for letters is three or four times larger than under the old régime. The gentleman who is at the head of the Post-office, Mr. H. W. Clendenin, continues to serve as a member of the Democratic State Central Committee.

It seemed fitting that the friends of reform throughout the country should be made cognizant of the above painful state of affairs. These transactions are rendered more painful when we reflect that they are carried on within sight of the last resting-place of Abraham Lincoln. In such a place we might reasonably look for the prevalence of something higher than the spoils theory; for who can doubt that, if living to-day, the great President would stand with his great coadjutors in the work of emancipation—would stand with Beecher, Curtis, Lowell, etc., in the Mugwump party of 1886?—Respectfully,

J. B. Barnhill.

Xenia, Ill.

GEN. WEAVER AND THE ADMINISTRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While your correspondents are calling your attention to the unanimity and heartiness with which Democratic conventions, State and Congressional, are endorsing Mr. Cleveland and his Administration, I want to direct your attention to one notable exception.

A few days ago the Democrats of this district, the Sixth, met in convention at Oskaloosa and renominated Gen. Weaver for Congress. They adopted four resolutions. One, the first, endorses the State platform; the second laments the death of Mr. Tilden; the third asks the miners to vote for Gen. Weaver because the last Legislature refused to give them relief; while the fourth is a lengthy and fulsome eulogy of Gen. Weaver and his work in Congress. Neither Mr. Cleveland nor the Administration is referred to. I suspect that Gen. Weaver either wrote these resolutions himself, or, through one of his henchmen—and they were present in full force—dictated them. I can in no other way explain the shameful performance, for I *know* that the Democrats of this district are very proud of Mr. Cleveland and of this Administration. Some of them, indeed most of them, are not in sympathy with Mr. Cleveland's civil-service ideas, but they see the handwriting on the wall and are preparing to submit to the inevitable.

I desire in the near future to give the *Nation*, for the benefit of our civil-service reform friends, a brief summary of the manner in which the patronage in this district has been distributed under that eminent reformer, Mr. Weaver. If perchance the facts could be brought to the President's notice, he would be able to form a more accurate opinion of Mr. Weaver, and of the value of his pretended friendship for him and his administration. Of course I do not hold the President responsible for Mr. Weaver's shortcomings, but the story will serve to show up the iniquity of the system that recognizes the offices in his district as the property of the Congressman.

A good many Democrats, the writer among the number, believing as we do in the President and his methods, cannot support Mr. Weaver and preserve our self-respect. But we cannot support his opponent, Mr. Donnell. He is a gentlemanly man, and has fair ability, but he is a thorough spoilsman, and has no well-defined ideas on any public question. On the tariff and finance he is all at sea. I am told that he will make his canvass on the "war" issue, while Mr. Weaver will find his strength in advocating cheap money and in appealing to the basest elements in human nature. The Democrats in this district are sadly in need of a Moses to lead them out of the wilderness. David W. Norris.

Grinnell, Iowa, August 30, 1886.

Notes.

The fall announcements of G. P. Putnam's Sons include a large number of historical works. Besides some nine volumes in the "Nations Series," we notice Mr. Howard W. Preston's 'Documents Illustrative of American History, 1606-1863,' with introduction and references; a 'History of the U. S. Navy,' by Edgar Stanton Maclay, in two octavo volumes, with maps and documents; 'Reminiscences of the Filibuster War in Nicaragua' (1855–60), by Gen. C. W. Doubleday, a participant; 'Memorials of Half a Century,' by Bela D. Hubbard, whose field of reminiscence is the region of the Great Lakes; 'Woodstock,' an historical sketch, by Clarence Winthrop Bowen; and, among children's books, 'Uncle Sam's Medal of Honor,' by Gen. Theo. F. Rodenbough; and 'Chivalric Days and Youthful Deeds,' by E. S. Brooks. Retrospective also are 'American Literature from 1607 to 1885,' by Charles F. Richardson, Professor of English Literature in Dartmouth College; and 'Humorous Masterpieces from American Literature,' edited by Edward T. Mason. Other announcements by the same firm are as follows: 'The Romances of Chivalry,' by John Ashton, with fifty illustrations "in facsimile" (a term used by this compiler in a peculiar sense); a poem, 'Risifi's Daughter,' by Anna Katharine Green, hitherto known as a writer of fiction; 'The Old Order Changes,' a story of to-day, by W. H. Mallock; 'Outlines of Music,' by Louis S. Davis; 'Problems and Socia Studies,' by the Rev. R. Heber Newton; and 'A Study of Sociology,' by President John Bascom.

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn will publish 'Forty Lessons in Punctuation and the Use of Capitals,' by Milton Quay; and 'Good Reading, for School and Home.'

In November E. P. Dutton & Co. will have ready 'Twenty Sermons,' by Phillips Brooks, D.D.; and 'Sermons, Doctrinal and Practical,' by Morgan Dix, D.D.

Thomas Whittaker publishes directly 'Half Hours with a Naturalist: Rambles near the Shore,' by the Rev. J. G. Wood.

'The Terrace of Mon Désir,' a story of Russian life, by an American lady; Grimm's stirring brochure on 'The Destruction of Rome,' translated by Miss Sarah Holland Adams; and 'Ralph Waldo Emerson: His Maternal Ancestors,' with reminiscences of him, by his relative, David Greene Haskins, D.D., are in the press of Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston. Of the interesting sketch last named only 350 copies will be printed, and from type.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'Contributions to the Science of Education,' by Prof. W. H. Payne; and 'Mary and Martha' (Washington), by Benson J. Lossing.

A Texan novel, 'Cynthias Dallas: a Nymph of the Colorado,' by Howard Seely, author of 'A Ranchman's Stories,' will be published by Dodd, Mead & Co.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish next week 'The Labor Movement in America,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely, of Johns Hopkins University.

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The great fire by which the firm of A. L. Bancroft & Co., San Francisco, suffered so severely, has led, among other changes, to the withdrawal of the publication of the historical works of Hubert Howe Bancroft, and the incorporation of 'The History Company,' of which Mr. Bancroft is President and N. J. Stone the Business Manager. Its imprint is already placed on the latest volume of the 'California' series.

The late Prof. William Cook, of Cambridge, in whom the *Nation* lost an occasional contributor, and whose department was instruction in German, published just before his untimely death a convenient "Alphabetical Table of the Principal Prefixes and Suffixes by which Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs are formed in German," mostly from Whitney's Grammar, and designed mainly for reference.

Mrs. Lamb offers the most entertaining article in her *Magazine of American History* for September. Her theme is the New York Historical Society, and as usual her text is freely interspersed with portraits and other illustrations. The faces of nearly all the presidents of the Society, from Egbert Benson down, are here engraved, the array being a very distinguished one.

Mountain-climbers and humbler pedestrians alike are indebted to the Appalachian Mountain Club for a tracing from the map of the Massachusetts Topographical Survey now in progress, showing the northwestern corner of the State on a scale of 1: 30,000, or twice that which will be adopted for publication. It embraces Williamstown, South Williamstown, Adams, and North Adams, with the whole of Greylock—a region of rare beauty and great variety of scenery. Figures of elevation accompany the contour lines. The map is folded in stiff covers, of size suitable for the coat-pocket, and is sold in Boston by W. B. Clarke & Carruth.

There has been no lack of school editions, *éditions classiques*, of the principal plays of the great French dramatists of the seventeenth century. A new series has now been begun by Hachette in Paris under the general title, 'Théâtre Classique' (Boston: Schoenhof). Four plays have already been published: "Cinna" and "Nicomède," by Corneille, with notes by M. Petit de Julleville; and "Iphigénie" and "Esther," by Racine, with notes by M. Lanson. Other plays by Corneille and Racine and Molière are announced to appear soon. The text followed in every case is that of the "Grands Écrivains de la France," and each play is accompanied by grammatical, historical, and literary notes, based in a measure upon the annotations of the larger publication. In many respects the notes of the school edition are fuller than those in the complete works, explaining with care allusions which might escape the young readers for whom they are intended, and also giving much collateral information interesting to readers of any age. There are copious grammatical explanations, and abundant citations of parallel passages from Greek and Latin authors.

M. Henry Becque, the author of "La Parisienne" and of other plays which have met with more or less success, has published his lecture on 'Molière et l'École des Femmes' (Paris: Tresse; Boston: Schoenhof). In it he protests against the mania which has become almost universal of attributing to writers of plays, and to Molière in particular, philosophical or political or moral ideas which they could never have had. "Tartuffe" and the "Misanthrope" are the two comedies of Molière on which commentators have especially exercised their ingenuity in discovering depths of meaning and intention. "L'École des Femmes," one of the simplest of plays, has not escaped such learned interpretations. As M. Becque remarks, a little more and the recent creation of *nos lycées de jeunes filles* would be traced back to the exposition by Molière of the dangers of ignorance in the case of *Agnès*. The author, putting aside all the ideas of reform attributed to Molière, sees in the play only one thought, common to many comedies, that love is the privilege of youth. This he develops by a pleasant analysis of a few scenes and by constant allusion to other works of the author.

M. Jules Simon, in the eleventh edition of 'L'École' (Paris: Hachette), has inserted an entirely new preface, in which he expresses himself very energetically upon some of the recent French laws upon educational matters. He had said, in the preface to the tenth edition, published in 1881: "The republic has realized almost all the wishes expressed by the author in this little book." Now, however, he protests against the excessive *laïcisation* of the public schools, in which he sees rather "a political action than an effort for the amelioration of education." He closes by maintaining that schools cannot be neutral in religious matters.

In *Le Livre* for August M. L. Derôme describes an edition hitherto unknown of three of La Fontaine's 'Contes,' thus contributing to the restoration of the purity (if this term be allowable) of the text of the best forgotten work of the fabulist. M. Spire Blondel concludes his agreeable series of articles on the writer's tools. P. van der Haeghen, writing of the private press of the Duchesse de Luynes, tells what is a twice-told tale in *Le Livre*, if our memory is not greatly at fault. However, he adds some fresh details concerning the cleverness of the Duchess at the case, where she even caught the swing (*un certain balancement du corps*) of the regular compositor. Among the reviews in this number we remark that of 'La Correspondance de Harper's Ferry,' by Raoul de l'Angle-Beaumanoir, which has reached a second edition. It promises a fund of amusement for the American reader. Fancy a plot which makes a charming woman compromise herself, during John Brown's trial, by writing "too pressing" letters to three of the jury which condemned him. Imagine, further, that the existence of these letters worries her after she has become the wife of the American Consul at Havre, in the midst of the civil war; that she sends a poor wretch who is enamoured of her to recover them, which he accomplishes "par des ruses sauvages et à travers les péripéties les plus amusantes et les plus dramatiques"; and that she then dismisses him as a lover, and he meekly disappears. The French historical novel could no further go.

Mme. J. W. Mario, who has but just completed her voluminous life of Mazzini, has already engaged to write a biography of her friend the late Dr. Agostino Bertani.

—Thirty-seven years ago the publication of the *Astronomical Journal* was begun in Cambridge by Mr. Benjamin Apthorp Gould. Twelve years later, in the middle of 1861, its continuance becoming impossible, the announcement of its suspension closed with the words, "It is my fervent hope to resume the publication of the *Journal* at an early day, by commencing the seventh volume soon after the suppression of the present insurrection." Dr. Gould now issues a circular letter in which he says that, under all the varying circumstances of the succeeding years, this hope was constantly cherished, and the suspension of the publication was regarded as only temporary; and at last, in 1869, arrangements were fully matured for its reappearance, when occurrences took place which led to the establishment of the Argentine National Observatory, and to his departure for South America to assume its directorship. Dr. Gould's eminent services to astronomy in this capacity are known to all; and now, on his return to this country, he proposes a resumption of the publication, should the proposition meet with favor. His plan is to continue the *Journal* in the same form and spirit as before, and under essentially the same conditions These imply a devotion to the advancement, rather than to the diffusion, of astronomical knowledge, yet without disregarding the importance of a prompt announcement of important discoveries. They imply, also, the dissemination of original researches only. The numbers of each volume will appear at irregular intervals, and it is hoped that a volume may be completed as often as once a year. It is understood that Dr. Gould will begin to issue the first volume of the new series as soon as he has the promise of subscriptions enough to cover about one-third of the outlay for actual publication; and those disposed to subscribe are asked to notify him as soon as may be convenient. We cannot but express the hope that Dr. Gould will receive the necessary encouragement from those interested in the advancement of astronomy.

—In No. 1064 of the *Nation* some account was given of the British Archæological Association a year ago visiting Hollingbury Copse to inspect the Shaksperiana there. Those Shakspere rarities render that "rustic wigwam," as its owner calls it, more and more a place of pilgrimage. A full hundred pilgrims have just wended their way thither, members of the British Medical Association, which last month held its annual meeting in Brighton. Though the Copse is three miles from the city and more than four hundred feet above it, Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps often walks home from town, and no doubt many of the pilgrims were pedestrians. They were well paid for their pains. The early Shaksperian relics consist of about fifteen hundred separate articles illustrative of the personal and literary history of the cosmopolitan dramatist; no other collections, not even those at Stratford-on-Avon, possessing anything like so large a number of authentic memorials of biographical interest. Sparing no expense or exertion for many years, Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps would seem to have long ago gleaned every grain that could be picked up in the field of his special research. Yet among the forty-seven articles specially described in the pamphlet printed for the convenience of the medical visitors, five are recent acquisitions and never had been exhibited before their visit. One of these five is the first edition of 'Pierce Penilesse,' the earliest work—even earlier than Greene's 'Groatsworth of Wit'—in which there is an allusion to any of the plays of Shakspere. Only one other copy is known to be extant. Another is the head of Shakspere in an oval, engraved by Stafford in 1655, of such rarity that only three other copies are known. A third is three of the original title-deeds of Shakspere's residence, New Place—the only ones of the poet's time known to exist, dated 1532, 1563, and 1567. Title-deeds long after those years were jealously guarded by their owners (American public registries being unknown); and, as Shakspere never mortgaged the estate, these three indentures, which are preserved uninjured, may be fairly included among the very few personal relics of the dramatist upon the authenticity of which no doubt can be entertained. These documents were recently discovered by Mr. Richard Sims of the British Museum in the archives of a county family, and at once came into the possession of Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps. Never was there a better confirmation of the text "He that seeketh findeth." Another curiosity, which deserves to be styled a "preciosity," is a fragment of four leaves only, but unique, no other vestige of a copy having as yet come to light, of the first edition, 1598, of the first part of "Henry IV." It contains the only existing record of what Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps holds to be the

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true reading in *Poins's* speech: "How the *fat* rogue roared!" It is something, he says, at this late day to recover even one lost word of the immortal text. But the pearl and pride of his accumulations—he has hung it in his dining-room that his eyes may feast on it as he breaks his daily bread—is a proof-copy of the Droeshout portrait of 1623. In the guide to his guests, accordingly, he has printed a page from the art critic, Fairholt, as well as the testimony of the late Director of the National Portrait Gallery, "whose knowledge of early engraving was unrivalled," to thicken other proofs which to some beholders might demonstrate thinly, that his engraving "is the *only* likeness of Shakspere in existence which has come down to us in a genuine, original, unaltered state."

—A few years ago Mr. John Henry Pratt and Mr. Walter Leaf, both fellows of Trinity College, Cambridge, edited, with the title 'The Story of Achilles,' books i, ix, xi, xvi–xxiv, of the 'Iliad.' The best proof of the excellence of the work is the fact that a second edition has since been published. About eight years ago Mr. Pratt met with a lamentable death by drowning in Lake Como. Mr. Leaf has meanwhile continued his Homeric studies, and the great number of important works in regard to the Homeric poems which have appeared since that time, together with other circumstances, has induced him to commence the publication of an edition of the whole of the 'Iliad.' The first volume (books i-xii; pp. xxviii, 422) is now before us in the shape of a beautiful 8vo in the best style of the publishers (Macmillan & Co.). It is not a "text-book for schools and colleges," but is intended to serve as "a guide to students anxious to know more of Homer than they can learn from elementary school books." In his general introduction Mr. Leaf treats of the text, the scholia, and the origin of the Homeric poems. He does not consider it possible to restore the original text of Homer. We must be satisfied with the text which tradition has handed down to us, and be contented to trace the tradition as far back as possible. He says, "The canon by which every reading has been judged is, *the best tradition of the fifth century* B. C.," and he gives us the comfortable assurance that the text of the 'Iliad' which we read to-day is, in all essential points, the same as that which was read by Herodotus and Thucydides. Mr. Leaf's account of the origin and development of the Greek scholia on the 'Iliad,' and of the ingenious methods by which the authors of the different scholia have been discovered, contains much that will be new and interesting to those who still retain some lingering fondness for the history of Greek literature, although their Greek studies ended with their college course. In regard to the origin of the Homeric poems Mr. Leaf holds—in common with the vast majority of classical scholars, except the English, and possibly with a majority even of those English scholars who have not passed the prime of life—that they are not the production of one author. He has his theory, like the rest, of the gradual growth of the 'Iliad,' and he endeavors to point out those books and parts of books comprising a comparatively small portion of the poem as it now stands, which formed the original nucleus, out of which by additions and interpolations, some of them perhaps made by the original author, the present 'Iliad' was formed. To the discussion of this matter a short introduction to each book is devoted, as is also a considerable portion of his commentary.

—M. Alfred Rambaud has published the first part of a work which will be completed in two volumes, 'Histoire de la Civilisation française' (Paris: Armand Colin; New York: Christern). In the present volume he has carried his history through the period of the Fronde. The work is elementary in character, but for its execution it deserves the highest rank. It is not so elementary, however, as not to presuppose an ordinary knowledge of the general facts of French history, for it is in no sense a narrative of events; nor is it so advanced as to address itself to those who have already made a special study of history. It is an attempt, and a successful one, to raise the teaching of history above the mere learning of a succession of sovereigns. Without omitting the military and administrative events, it seeks to give the history of institutions and of the nation in all its elements—aristocracy, clergy, bourgeoisie, and people of town and country. M. Rambaud's book is eminently an educational work: every thought of mere elegance of form is laid aside for the sake of clearness and simplicity. The result is that the 'Histoire de la Civilisation,' unlike most French works with a similar title, is not adapted for current reading. It is a book to put into the student's hands for study or consultation. Its arrangement, divisions and subdivisions, and lists of sources, make of it an excellent advanced class-book, or rather a practical reference volume of catalogued facts. But this must not be taken too literally: M. Rambaud is a Frenchman, and he cannot but strive to give even the dryest facts in a way that makes them presentable. Without ever falling into the pyrotechnics of history, of which Michelet was always lavish, certain paragraphs are such complete pictures in themselves that we feel how difficult it is for the author to allow his erudition to interfere with the artistic finish of his work. As an example of this may be mentioned the two pages on "Ce qu'étaient les nobles au temps de Louis XIII." (p. 564), or the paragraph "Les Duels" (p. 566). His material is, however, generally rebellious to such treatment, but he always has such a mastery over it as to present it in a form perfectly clear and free from any disturbing display of erudition, even carefully avoiding references to foreign or out-of-the-way books, or to editions not accessible to those for whom he writes. The volume has a very useful index.

—Seven cities disputed the honor of being Homer's birthplace, but in the case of Liszt, says the Berlin *Boersen-Courier*, it seems as if seven cities would soon be contending for the privilege of counting his grave among their "sights." The tale which hangs hereby is this. It caused considerable surprise throughout the Continent that Liszt was so suddenly buried at Bayreuth, without much ceremony. Director Mihalowitch of Buda-Pesth, who happened to be in Bayreuth at the time, made every effort to prevent Liszt's burial there, by sending telegrams in all directions to noted Hungarians who might exert their authority in securing their countryman's remains for his native land. Among other despatches there was one from a friend of Liszt's in Rome, the Princess Sayn-Wittgenstein, who asserted that in 1861 Liszt had made a will in which he expressed his desire to be buried at Buda-Pesth. Of this will nothing was known at Bayreuth, where it was not supposed he had any will at all, as he died "as poor as a church-mouse," having even sent his last pocket money to a young musician who begged for assistance. So much for Buda-Pesth; now as to Weimar. The pupils of Liszt who attended the funeral asserted unanimously that Liszt had always desired to be buried there, where he won his great triumphs in first familiarizing the world with the works of Wagner, Berlioz, and others, making of Weimar what Bayreuth is now. It caused surprise, therefore, that the Grand Duke of Weimar did not send to Bayreuth to claim Liszt's body. The reason why he did not do so was because he received a telegram from Bayreuth stating that Liszt had expressed a desire to be buried there. The telegram came from the financial manager of the festival plays, who got his information from Frau Cosima Wagner, Liszt's daughter. And where did she get it? From Mishko, Liszt's servant. Frau Wagner prayed all night over her father's corpse, and in the morning she asked Mishko if Liszt had ever stated where he wished to be buried. Mishko replied that Liszt had only once spoken on the topic, a few years ago, when a noted Hungarian patriot's body was transported to Pesth. He then said that the notion of a travelling corpse was something dreadful to him, and that he wished to be buried where he died. It is now feared that, as everything depends on the servant's word alone, efforts will be made to exhume Liszt's body and transfer it to Pesth or Weimar. After all, however, Pesth has no special claims on him. As the *Boersen-Courier* remarks, Liszt was "cosmopolitan in thought, German in feeling." And Dr. Hanslick says, in the *Neue Freie Presse* of Vienna: "He preferred, even in Germany, to speak French; corresponded with Germans in French; wrote his books in the French language. And yet his mother-tongue was German. Born and bred in a border county of Hungary, where at that time the German language and customs prevailed, Liszt *never knew a word of Hungarian*. He was German, Frenchman, Hungarian—whatever you please."

—More interesting to the world at large than the ultimate resting-place of Liszt's remains is the question regarding the existence of his memoirs. Some time ago notices were repeatedly published abroad that Liszt was hard at work on them, that he was putting the finishing touches to them, etc. It would seem now that all these notices came from the canard-breeding establishment, which seems to favor the musical world especially. Hanslick states that "on my questioning him in 1878 whether he did not intend to write his memoirs, he replied that his life took up so much of his time that he could not possibly write it too." It is possible, however, that he may have changed his mind since. It would be a tremendous loss, and not to the musical world only, if he had not done so. In his youth he was intimate with Victor Hugo, Musset, Sand, Lamartine, Berlioz, Chopin, and other great men of the French capital, of whom he could tell many an interesting story. Liszt's life practically comprehends the whole history of modern music. He was born two years before Wagner, one year after Schumann, two years after Chopin and Mendelssohn. Had all these composers possessed his vitality, what added treasures musical literature would possess. And there is hardly a modern composer whose fame was not accelerated through Liszt's efforts. Hanslick admits that the "Lohengrin" performances at Weimar hastened the general appreciation of that opera by a decade. Schumann alone was for a time ignored by Liszt, who might have greatly benefited him; but he has since publicly expressed his regrets at this circumstance. And as for minor musicians and students, what Hanslick says is by no means exaggerated: "There is only one voice regarding the self-sacrificing unselfishness with which he met the importunate wishes of pupils; one voice only regarding the ever-prompt kindness with which he favored young composers, answered their letters, looked over their manuscripts, accepted their dedications, yes, even tried to find publishers for them. In this uninterrupted kindness towards others, whose wishes he attended to in preference to his own works, his own interests and comforts, Franz Liszt stands quite alone in the history of the art." As Hanslick often heard Liszt play, it is of interest to read what he has to say on this topic: "With Liszt's playing I can compare nothing else. Rubinstein, to-day beyond

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doubt the greatest of the virtuosi, surpasses him only in physical power. Liszt may have varied in his skill, he may have been occasionally out of humor or eccentric, but coarse he never was. Any one who has heard Schubert's 'Wanderer-Fantasia' or Weber's 'Invitation to Dance' by Liszt and later by Rubinstein, knows which of the two was the much nobler and more refined musician." This must be taken *cum grano*, because Hanslick invariably follows the German maxim that about the living nothing but ill should be spoken; and Rubinstein unfortunately is still alive. Hanslick also wrote some years ago (when Liszt unfortunately was still alive), that the interest in his music was entirely inspired by his personality, and that with the last person who knew Liszt the last applause would cease. Perhaps the Viennese critic would be surprised to hear that, at the forty-eight popular concerts given by Mr. Thomas last year in New York, where not one in a thousand, perhaps, had ever seen Liszt, his compositions ranked in frequency of performance immediately after Beethoven and Wagner, who headed the list.

—A number of years ago, while presenting to the readers of the *Nation* (No. 341) fugitive outlines of a rich collection of "Hebraica" and "Judaica," then acquired by the temple Emanu-El of this city, we remarked on the places of publication most frequently met with on the title-pages of that, as of almost every other, Hebrew library. We enumerated the Italian towns, from Venice, Mantua, and Ferrara to Pieve di Sacco, Soncino, and Sabionetta; the Dutch, from Amsterdam and Leyden to Franeker; the German, from Berlin and Leipzig to Altdorf and Rödelheim; the towns of Eastern Europe, from Wilna to Saloniki; and also Basel, Paris, Oxford, Smyrna, and Jerusalem. But America remained unrepresented. The library referred to probably contained none of the Hebrew or "Judaic" books published in this country previous to that date, very few of which deserved a scholar's or book collector's attention. Things have changed since. Jewish literature has taken root in this country, gradually developing with the increase of the Jewish element in our population, with its advance in mercantile and industrial pursuits, in prosperity and culture. There can be no more striking evidence of this than the almost simultaneous appearance on our desk of three eminently scholarly publications by American rabbis. The one is a collection of critical essays in German or English, by Dr. S. Adler, of this city, bearing the Hebrew title 'Qōbēṣ 'al yād' (New York, 1886). The more important of these essays are "Der Versöhnungstag in der Bibel, sein Ursprung und seine Bedeutung," reprinted from Stade's *Zeitschrift;* "Pharisäismus und Sadducäismus," from Graetz's *Monatschrift;* and "Talmud," one of the most learned and comprehensive contributions which Johnson's Cyclopædia can boast of. Of Dr. M. Jastrow's, the Philadelphia rabbi's, 'Dictionary of the Targumim, the Talmud Babli and Yerushalmi, and the Midrashic Literature,' of which the first part is soon to be given to the public (London: Trübner & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1886), only a specimen lies before us in print, but we have seen considerable portions of it in manuscript, and it is impossible to exaggerate the conscientious zeal and devotion to philological and antiquarian science of which this stupendous work is the product. It is to be completed in about twelve parts of 96 quarto pages each, which, "if the proper support be extended" by the world of scholars, "will follow each other at intervals of about three to six months." But the work by which American scholarship is, for the first time, made to shine in the domain of Hebrew literature proper is the 'Sepher Iyyōb' ('The Book of Job'), with a new and most elaborate commentary in the language of the text, "by Benjamin Szold, rabbi of the Oheb-Shalom Congregation of Baltimore" (Baltimore, 1886). It is saying much, but we venture to affirm that in future any Hebrew collection of Bible commentators that does not contain this American book will be as defective as if works of Rashi, Aben Ezra, or Kimhi, were absent from its shelves.

PERKINS'S FRANCE UNDER MAZARIN.

France under Mazarin. With a review of the administration of Richelieu. By James Breck Perkins. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1886. 8vo, 2 vols.

THE back of these handsome volumes bears the title 'France under Richelieu and Mazarin,' and each title describes with sufficient accuracy, although neither with precision, the scope of the work. The chapters upon Richelieu are much less in amount than those upon Mazarin, and at the same time are considerably more than a mere introduction to the period of the later statesman. Although this strikes one at first sight as somewhat out of proportion, both in relation to the greatness of the men and the importance of the events which they controlled, yet, after all, it serves the author's purposes extremely well. His subject is Mazarin, a man and a period very little known, but so closely dependent upon the more familiar period that preceded it, that it was necessary to give a somewhat complete account of this earlier period—and not a mere sketch—by way of introduction. The book is therefore properly entitled 'France under Mazarin,' and the admirable account of "France under Richelieu," which precedes it, is an integral part of the work.

Whether the administration of Mazarin is worth relating in this detail is another question. Certainly the foreign relations, with the two great treaties (of Westphalia and the Pyrenees) negotiated in these years, deserve the most careful study; and these chapters are in every way praiseworthy. But the first of these, at all events, was the outcome of Richelieu's policy rather than Mazarin's; and the event which occupied the greater part of this period, and which is here narrated in great detail—the War of the Fronde—is perhaps the dreariest and most characterless chapter of modern history. Its value consists solely in the picture it presents of the utter worthlessness of the governing classes of France; and this has its bearing upon the history of the subsequent hundred and fifty years. It also has its significance in its relation to the previous century. The sixteenth century is a distracted period of French history, and at no time has royalty sunk so low as under the last Valois; but there were heroic characters in this period, some men at least of nobility and earnestness of purpose. The seventeenth century exhibits nothing but meanness and self-seeking, joined with absolute indifference to morality. It is a fact very significant of the change in the times, that nearly every representative of the great Huguenot families of the previous century now professed the religion of the court, having abjured the stern puritanical virtue as well as the religion of their grandsires.

In estimating the work of one of the world's great men, as Richelieu assuredly was, we have a right to consider not merely whether what he did was brilliantly and successfully done, but also whether it was the best thing to be done. From a statesman of the first order we may demand positive and permanent benefits to the country which he rules. Richelieu's policy may be summed up as two-fold—the greatness of France and the absolute authority of the King. It is in the first of these that he earned, without question, the rank of a great statesman. The great peril to Europe at just this juncture was in the house of Austria; and Richelieu deserved the thanks of the world for having—from whatever motives—joined hands with Gustavus Adolphus to hold this bigoted and tyrannical power in check. We cannot quite agree with Mr. Perkins's qualified regrets at the outcome of the Thirty Years' War in this regard, expressed at the end of the first volume. All that he says of the fatal results of the war, in "the establishment of the power and separate rights of a multitude of petty sovereigns," is perfectly true. Germany, like France, needed to become a united nation, but not under Ferdinand of Styria. His triumph would have not merely put an end to the disintegration of Germany—a thing much to be desired—but would have at the same time crushed all elements of free government, and have extirpated Protestantism. All Germany would have been reduced to the condition to which Bohemia had been reduced. Better by far the chaos of 200 years, with the germs of a vigorous life ready to start, than the intellectual and moral deadness which Ferdinand would have created.

In France Richelieu did establish a central power, and thus bring France out of the turbulence and misrule of the sixteenth century. But we see in the experience of France something of what Germany escaped. Richelieu was a wiser man than Ferdinand, and was no bigot. He did not trample out the reformed religion as Ferdinand would have done, neither did he wholly destroy provincial autonomy; but he made it easy for a later tyrant to accomplish both. It is to Richelieu's over-strained centralization—and yet less stringent than Germany would have suffered—that France owed the hopeless misgovernment out of which she only made her escape at last through the crisis of the Revolution. France needed a vigorous national life, and Richelieu gave her a despot.

In this we see the limitations of his individuality and his class. As a French nobleman of the seventeenth century, it could not come into his mind to take the welfare of the people into account, or to consider that the nation had a life and interests apart from those of the King. He found the people of France on the whole well-to-do and contented, after the sagacious and economical administration of Sully. He left them poor and exhausted; but this was a thing about which he did not concern himself. He found the provinces of France in the possession of an exaggerated degree of independence. He had not the wisdom to build upon the foundation afforded by these institutions of a long historical growth; he could not comprehend any method of ridding the country of the abuses of this system, except by destroying the system itself. It is true the institutions of self-government—if we can call them so—were very incomplete, and were not strongly rooted in the habits and sentiments of the French people. This Mr. Perkins shows very well. But at least they were capable of development, and this Richelieu could not understand.

We have very little but praise for the work before us. Mr. Perkins begins with a judicious discussion of the work of Richelieu and Mazarin, showing that they did not, as has been sometimes asserted, overthrow all checks upon the royal power and make the King absolute; rather that they organized this already existing absolute power, and neglected to establish checks or to develop free institutions. About a third of the work is given to Richelieu; about a third (six chapters out of twenty) to the Fronde; and three chapters at the end are of a general nature, upon the administration, society, and religion. The reader lays aside the book with a higher estimate of Mazarin's ability and character.

The style is for the most part excellent—serious

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and perspicuous in discussion and in the delineation of character, animated in narration. Only rarely one finds a slipshod sentence like this (vol. i, p. 272): "Following this success by the capture of Thionville, a thing that had been unsuccessfully attempted in 1639, would show that a man's hand was still at the helm." On page 255 we read: "the two men whom it was believed would enjoy the most favor from the new regent." A characteristic of the style—we think a fault—is the omission of "that" in indirect discourse (p. 87): "Its States met and declared their local rights were violated by the King's edict." The translations from French are as a rule good and idiomatic; on page 395, however, we read: "There are now, sire, ten years that the country is ruined." Mr. Perkins is generally careful to use good English words and phrases; it is therefore a surprise to find the French forms *Escaut* (for *Scheldt*, p. 339) and *Fiesque* (for *Fiesco*, vol. ii, p. 4). We note a few misprints. Vol. i, p. 19, Brandenberg for Brandenburg; p. 32, l. 11, their for there; p. 95, de Guesclin for du Guesclin; p. 210, councils for counsels; p. 477, canon for cannon.

BISHOP KERFOOT.

Life of the Right Reverend John Bishop Kerfoot, D.D., LL.D., First Bishop of Pittsburgh. With selections from his Diaries and Correspondence. By Hall Harrison, M.A., Rector of St. John's Church, Howard County, Md. 2 vols. James Pott & Co. 1886.

Mr. Harrison has done the work intrusted to him in a painstaking and judicious manner. He has kept himself for the most part out of sight, and allowed the Bishop to express himself freely and fully in his journals and correspondence. At the same time he has not aimed at any colorless impartiality, but has allowed himself from time to time "the delights of admiration." The book is one that will make its principal appeal to those who find themselves in places similar to that which Bishop Kerfoot occupied, and to those profoundly interested in the ecclesiastical polity and history of the Episcopal Church; to the general public, very little. And yet it is to be desired that those who will read it least should read it most; for it is a book eminently calculated to convince those who were not of the Bishop's fold that here was a good shepherd, an earnest, honest, and industrious man, doing his best in his own way to make love and righteousness abound. There is no better antidote for the keenness of our sectarian animosities than the reading of biographies of men who did not walk with us. Bishop Kerfoot was an ardent, even a passionate Episcopalian; but to read his biography, and especially his own letters and journals, is to be made aware that his Christianity and his manhood transcended his particular opinions.

Bishop Kerfoot was of Scotch-Irish parentage, and was born in Ireland in 1816. His father removed to this country in 1818, and he followed with his mother and three other children the next year. The parents had been Wesleyans. The boy received his first impulse to the Episcopal Church from Dr. Muhlenberg, who came to Lancaster in 1820 and opened a Church Sunday-school. Afterward he attended the Doctor's "Flushing Institute" for a number of years, and received from him a distinctly evangelical impression which faded somewhat as time went on. But so did not his love and admiration for his early teacher till he gave to him such comfort as he could in his last sickness. The most notable incident of his boyhood was the delivery of an address to Lafayette in 1825. It was full of excellent advice and admonition, and a facsimile of the original MS. is a welcome addition to the illustrations of the book. His deacon's orders were taken in 1837, and he was ordained a priest on his twenty-fourth birthday. For a time much pulled asunder by conflicting demands upon him and his own indefinite desires, in 1842 he assumed the charge of St. James Hall in the diocese of Maryland, then presided over by Bishop Whittingham, one of the most remarkable men of his order in the United States, with whom Kerfoot's relations were most intimate and affectionate until the former's death in 1879, only a year or two before his own.

Financial troubles combined with "minister's sore throat" to make the early years of his life at St. James anxious and harassing, but the ailment insured a trip to England, and the financial difficulties were already lessening, and the school had greatly multiplied its buildings and increased its usefulness, when Kemp Hall, the principal dormitory and place of instruction, was destroyed by fire during a fearful winter storm in January, 1857. Bishop Whittingham "worked up" the event in a manner calculated to make a metropolitan reporter green with envy, and his account has been incorporated in his seventh chapter by Mr. Harrison. Mr. Kerfoot's conduct was certainly deserving of the highest praise. His only thought was for his boys. Until their safety was assured, he did not hesitate to put his own in fearful peril. Bishop Whittingham's account of the disaster was eloquent with an ulterior aim, which he accomplished. Funds came to the rescue of the school, and a new site for it was selected twenty miles from Baltimore, where the unfinished buildings, arrested by the civil war, still make their mute appeal to those who cherish the memories of Whittingham and Kerfoot, for the fulfilment of their hope.

Mr. Harrison's chapters for the period coinciding with the civil war derive considerable interest from the fact that the College of St. James—it had grown from a school into a college of some sort—was situated in a region which became the tramping ground of the contending armies. Principal Kerfoot, like Bishop Whittingham, was a thorough Unionist, but he found no reason to complain of the Bishop's admonitory circular to his clergy, instructing them, in case Maryland seceded, to omit the usual prayer for the President of the United States. First an Episcopalian, and then a patriot. But so many of the St. James boys were from the South that the school lost a majority of its students on account of the principal's position and the various exigencies of the situation. Things went from bad to worse. In June, 1861, the College grounds became the site of the first encampment of Union soldiers in a Southern State. In 1862 an authorized prayer for Union victories stirred up a great commotion, and in July of that year the last public commencement was held. Then came Antietam, and Dr. Kerfoot's letters and journals abound in interesting particulars of the invasion. The College life went on in 1863 with lessening numbers till Lee crossed the Potomac in June. Mr. Harrison finds it necessary to apologize for Dr. Kerfoot's characterization of the conduct of the retreating rebel army; but no apology was needed. The College rectory and other buildings were ransacked and plundered without mercy. Dr. Kerfoot went into the hospitals and worked until his health broke down. In October the College entered on another year with about thirty students. The work continued fitfully throughout the year. In August, 1864, Early came raiding into Maryland, and Dr. Kerfoot was made a prisoner and put on his parole to secure Dr. Boyd's release from the Union prison at Wheeling, Va. Failing of this, he was to go to Richmond.

There is a very interesting appendix to chapter xi, giving an account of this whole business. Particularly interesting is the account of Dr. Kerfoot's meeting with Bishop Whittingham in Baltimore, after he had given his parole. The Bishop insisted that Dr. Kerfoot had no right to put the Government in a position where it even implicitly accorded to the South the rights of a belligerent. He would send him to Fortress Monroe until the war was over. Bishop Whittingham was nothing if not logical, and he had the courage of his convictions even when they involved a friend in a very miserable plight. The Government was of a less Roman firmness, and Dr. Boyd's release discharged Dr. Kerfoot from his parole; but no attempt was made to resume the College work at St. James.

This ruin of so many hopes after more than twenty years of faithful service was followed by a year as President of Trinity College, Hartford, Conn. The position did not prove congenial. There was no family life as at St. James, and the boys were given to all manner of collegiate silliness. He had, however, done something to establish himself in the esteem of the students and the confidence of the trustees when, in the fall of 1865, he was elected Bishop of Pittsburgh. The general convention immediately preceding his election was an exceedingly important one, and its action was extremely characteristic of the Episcopal Church in dealing with the problems of the war. Mr. Horace Binney offered a resolution that the House of Bishops, in the religious services appointed for a day of special thanksgiving, should advise especial thanks "for the removal of the great occasion of national dissension and estrangement to which our late troubles were due." Bishop Whittingham was the principal opponent of this resolution in the upper house and Dr. Kerfoot in the lower. It was buried under an overwhelming majority. It was perhaps the prudent temper exhibited by Dr. Kerfoot on this occasion that marked him as a fit person to preside over the new diocese of Pittsburgh, permission to form which had been granted at the general convention. He did not accept the office without much urgency from without and much inward questioning. From the time of his consecration till his death he proved by his executive ability and by his personal influence that no mistake had been made in his election. His heart was in his work and his judgment was generally just. That the diocese was newly organized, and that Presbyterianism was everywhere in the ascendant, made the eager Churchman's life a very busy one. Illness and ecclesiastical business took him to Europe several times. He was a member of the first Lambeth Conference in 1867, of the second in 1877, and of the Bonn Conference in 1874. His relation to the ritualistic controversy is the subject of two or three of Mr. Harrison's most interesting chapters. His position was substantially the same as that of Bishop Whittingham. So far as ritualism was an æsthetic matter, concerned with the beautifying of churches and the enrichment of their services, he was himself a ritualist. It was with the doctrinal elements of the movement as they bore upon baptism and the eucharist and the use of confession—its Romanizing tendencies—that he had no sympathy.

The last years of his life had much sickness and sorrow to impair their happiness; and also great disappointment on account of the failure of a plan of church extension in Mexico to make good his expectations. He died July 10, 1881. The impression we derive from his biography is that his character was much greater than his talents, and that these were mainly of the executive order. He had strong affections, and he was widely and profoundly reverenced and loved. His church had never any reason to suspect his loyalty. The different pictures of his face, among the illustrations of the book, are full of interest. That representing him in his early manhood is

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rarely beautiful, and most engaging in its sweetness and its purity, with little promise of the later strength.

India Revisited. By Edwin Arnold. (Reprinted, with additions descriptive and poetical, from the *Daily Telegraph.*) London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros. 1886. Illustrated. Pp. 324. 8vo.

THE first impression of the author of the 'Light of Asia' on landing in India last November, after a more than twenty years' absence, was, how great the change! "I left Bombay a town of warehouses and offices; I find her a city of parks and palaces." He had not passed a day on shore, however, before discovering that this change was only on the surface, and that "the background of Hindu fashions and manners remains unchanged and unchangeable." Still, while this was true of the great mass of the people, he found in the social life of the higher classes a marked difference between the India of the present day and that which he had known. The position of the women had greatly changed. For instance, accompanied by his wife and daughter, he visited a native gentleman who "led them to the drawing-room, where they were at once joined by the wife and daughters of the Hindu knight. These amiable native ladies could talk English perfectly, chatted on social topics, compared tastes in dress and tints, and in all respects observed our own usages of intercourse, except in the graceful local addition that, at the close of our visit, they presented to their English friends deliciously fragrant bouquets of roses and jasmine, and offered the aromatic *pan supâri* and the rose water." On the same day, at a musical entertainment given by a Parsee gentleman, there were, besides the English guests, "some eighty or a hundred of the leading members of Parsee, Hindu, and Mohammedan society, including at least forty native ladies."

At Poona, where Mr. Arnold was formerly the principal of a college, he has the same mingled impressions, caused by great external changes joined with the unaltered life of the people. At times he writes in a half-regretful tone of bygone customs, as if he preferred the old to the new. Coming upon "a stone memorial of a Sati, with the usual hand, arm, and foot-marks engraved, which show that a Hindu widow here immolated herself," he says it was "a splendid courage and a beautiful faith which inspired those Indian wives." Of the nautch he also speaks enthusiastically, but adds, in reference to the performers, "because so many of them can read, write, and are, in fact, the cleverest and most accomplished, as well as the most generous of their sex, the Hindus have come to shudder at the idea of education for their wives: and this is one of the greatest obstacles to female instruction." At Baroda the travellers were the guests of the Guicowar, who thus honored the man who has best interpreted the native thought to his countrymen. Under her young ruler, who was "suddenly called from humble life in a village of the Deccan" to ascend the throne, this state has greatly improved. "Education is being extended to the low-castes and villagers, and municipal improvements of a sweeping kind are in progress." The wild-beast fights, for which it was formerly famous, have been practically abolished, but their memory is still preserved in a huge rhinoceros, the hero of many battles, who now lives a retired pensioner chained up under a grove of trees. A singularly interesting chapter describes a visit to Bhaonagar, a "model native state" on the Gulf of Cambay, where Mr. Arnold was the guest of the Maharaja. Here, at a reception in his honor at the college, the conversation with the Pundits turned on various points of philosophy, literature, and religion. These scholars came finally to this agreement: "that names and forms are nothing; that truth in all religions is one and the same; that, at the last, the Vedantist, the Buddhist, and the illuminated Western philosopher see by one light."

From Bhaonagar, passing through Ahmedabad, Mr. Arnold came to the Rajput city of Jeypore. It is as if we were transported back to the days of the 'Thousand and One Nights' to read of this enchanting place. The whole city is "a delicate rosy red, relieved with white." The street by which the party entered, absolutely straight and more than two miles in length, "is an interminable perspective of roseate house-fronts, bathed by soft sunlight, nowhere ungraceful in style of building, and at many spots on either side of the way broken magnificently by stately fronts of palaces and long lines of light pavilions, embellished with columns and cupolas, and enriched with floral or pictorial frescoes in all sorts of designs." Among these buildings, preëminent in beauty is the "'Hall of the Winds,' a vision of daring and dainty loveliness, nine stories of rosy masonry and delicate overhanging balconies and latticed windows." In strong contrast to these scenes is a row of strongly barred cages where are confined, as state captives, eight man-eating tigers, which "have been snared in pitfalls, where the tiger is left until hunger has reduced him to extreme weakness, upon which the captors manage to draw him forth and shut him up in a life-long imprisonment." In the dreamlike "Silver House" is preserved a Persian manuscript, "made by the orders of Akbar the Great at a cost of forty thousand pounds, and illustrated in the most exquisite manner with colored and miniature pictures, all of an incredible delicacy." At Ulwur, however, there was a copy of the 'Gulistan' valued at £50,000, but "beyond price for the purity of its script and the splendid color and delicacy of its pictures." In the armory of this latter place was a superb collection of swords, some of which "had pearls enclosed in a slot within the breadth of the blade, so that the pearls run up and down as the point is raised or depressed"; and among the jewels in the treasury were "two emeralds of prodigious size, with Persian couplets carved upon their lucent green."

By a sudden transition we pass from these scenes to equally vivid descriptions of the "Camp of Exercise" at Delhi and stories of the siege in 1857. Glorious as are the architectural monuments of Delhi and of Agra, to a description of which Mr. Arnold devotes two chapters, he evidently has a keener intellectual enjoyment, if not a deeper feeling still, in visiting the sacred city of Benares and the hallowed country of the Buddhist chronicles, where the 'Light of Asia' "was born and dwelled in his Pleasure-House; where he meditated his doctrines during six years, and where he publicly taught them; and where his body was burned." Step by step he followed the traces of the "Master," as much a pilgrim as any of those who thronged the shrines, the cave in which Buddha actually dwelt, and the Bôdhi tree where "the sun of Truth rose for Prince Siddârtha." The remainder of Mr. Arnold's journey has less of interest, though there is not one dull page in his narrative, sparkling with vivid word pictures and interspersed with ballads and snatches of poetry and song. From Calcutta he goes to Ceylon, where he is received with special honor by the Buddhist priests and people for having to quote from one of their addresses, "caused the revered name and sublime doctrines of our Lord Buddha to be respected and valued by scores of people of various Western nations." On his homeward journey he turned aside, on the invitation of the Nizam, to visit Hyderabad, where another series of brilliant entertainments awaited him. In the last days of February he was again in Bombay, having during the winter months crossed the peninsula from west to east and from south to north.

Mr. Arnold's style is often too ornate, although admirably adapted to his subject, and at times his fondness for Indian words makes his meaning obscure. The architectural illustrations are in general very good, but those of the scenery are sometimes quite indistinct.

Books for a Reference Library: Being lectures on the books in the reference department of the Free Public Library, Birmingham. First series. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 8vo.

IN this volume we have a good example of the sort of work which might be carried on with advantage in connection with every public library, but which has until lately received little attention in this country, though we are glad to see that in one or two of the papers read at the Milwaukee meeting of the American Library Association the need of just such aid as is here given to readers was strongly emphasized. The authorities of the Birmingham library, believing that their excellent collection of reference books had remained almost unknown to the majority of the citizens, determined in 1884 "to organize lectures which should have the effect of opening up to the inhabitants of the borough some knowledge of the most valuable contents of the great treasures which were in the library"; and the volume before us contains the first fruits of this determination.

The first two lectures are by the Chairman of the Library Committee, and take up the subjects of Law and Jurisprudence, and Legal and Constitutional History, respectively. In his introductory remarks the lecturer points out that while the library possesses an admirable catalogue, "there is nothing that requires a greater knowledge of books to use properly than a catalogue," and hence the necessity of calling upon specialists in various departments to undertake for readers the useful if homely office of fingerpost to the catalogue's contents. He then proceeds to characterize briefly the works which it would be most profitable for any one commencing the study of law to read. The place of honor is given to Austin's 'Jurisprudence,' and occasion is taken to note the confusion arising from neglecting to bear in mind the two senses of the word law. Bentham's works are next mentioned, and attention is directed to the more important of them. Bentham and Austin are given as representatives of the school of analytical jurists, and Sir Henry Maine is placed at the head of the school of historical jurists. His works are described, with some remarks as to the order of reading to be pursued, and his treatment of the subject. After naming several other works on the general subject of jurisprudence, the lecturer turns to the subject of English law, recommends Blackstone's 'Commentaries,' noting the principal editions, Nasmith's 'Institutes of English Law,' and Kent's 'Commentaries'—"an admirable book, and valuable to the English student because it is strong where Blackstone is weak." Passing from books which give a general survey of the whole field of English law, the more important works in special departments, such as criminal law, property law, etc., are named and described, and the lecture concludes with a brief mention of some of the best law dictionaries.

In the second lecture attention is called to the importance of a knowledge of the original authorities, such as the statutes at large, the year books, state trials, etc., and the best works on the history of English law are enumerated and characterized; the works of Glanville, Bracton, Fortescue, and Coke are recommended for the

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rough study; and the remainder of the lecture is devoted to works on the constitutional history of England. It is remarked that in historical reading, where there must be a constant use of authorities, the reader is referred from one book to another, so that half-a-dozen of the chief books on a subject will introduce a student to all the others.

From this brief summary an idea of the method pursued may be obtained, and it will suffice to mention simply the subjects of the remaining lectures, viz.: Greek and Latin Classics, by the Head Master of King Edward's School; Books on Shakespeare, by S. Timmins, who does justice to the labors of American scholars in this field; Botanical Books, and the Botanical Books of the Nineteenth Century, two lectures by the Professor of Botany in Mason College, who, speaking of the French translation of Grisebach's 'Vegetation of the Earth,' says: "In reference to this and other German works, I may here remark that when a French translation exists and an English does not, it is preferable to get the French translation rather than the German original; because there is a tendency among German scientists to involve themselves in sentences the beginning of which they have forgotten before the end is reached, and elucidation is usually one of the first duties of a translator. The French language is one that lends itself to the simplest possible description, so that, provided an English translation be not to hand, the French is decidedly preferable, as a rule, to the German original." Unfortunately the tendency here condemned is not confined to the scientists, for some of the worst offenders in this respect may be found among modern German philologists. The seventh and concluding lecture is on "Some Art Books," chiefly with reference to the decorative arts, and intended more especially for the guidance of those engaged in art industries. An appendix contains short-title lists of the books in the Reference Library illustrative of the subjects treated in the lectures.

Notwithstanding a certain note of insularity perceptible in some of the lectures, and excusable, perhaps, considering that they were addressed to a local English audience, the book is not without value as a guide for American readers, though its chief claim to our attention is that it offers an example worthy of imitation by the authorities of American libraries, and of college libraries especially. No class of men should be better qualified to give to students a brief outline of the bibliography of the subject in hand than the professors in our universities; the character, merits, and relative importance of the principal works should be explained, the best periodicals pointed out and described, so that the students may be able not only to read intelligently the standard works, but to keep in touch with the results of modern thought and investigation as well. To some extent and in a fragmentary way this is done, no doubt; but we hope that before long a lecture on the bibliography of the subject will be considered an indispensable introduction to every course of lectures delivered in our universities.

A Simplified Grammar of the Japanese Language (Modern Written Style). By Basil Hall Chamberlain. London: Trübner & Co.

THIS handy little volume of a hundred pages has been printed in Japan under the eye of the author, and is noticeably free from slips of the pen or printer's mistakes. It gives a clear analysis and presentation of the modern written style of the Japanese language. The author, who has for years been an alert student of the tongue spoken by the Mikado's subjects, is also an indefatigable reader of the ancient literature. He has already distinguished himself by his 'Classical Poetry of the Japanese,' and few papers read before the Asiatic Society of Japan are so rich in nuggets of thought, information, and discovery as are his. An active member of the Romaji-Kai, or Roman Letter Society, which aims to substitute in popular use the Roman letter for the native syllabary, he has studied his theme from all points of view, and the result is a manual of singular clearness.

Mr. Chamberlain considers it an open question whether the Japanese is to be put into the group of Altaic languages with the Turkish, Hungarian, Finnish, Mongol, and Manchiu. It is manifest, however, that he believes the evidence leans that way. Hence, in his view, the "Japanese assumes prime importance as being by far the oldest living representative of that great linguistic group." "Its earliest extant documents go back in their present shape to the beginning of the eighth century of our era, and its literature has flourished uninterruptedly from that time downward." To the Corean its structural resemblance is very great, reaching even into the minutiæ of idiom.

Wisely abandoning the idea of attempting to adapt the cumbrous system of the Greek and Latin grammarians to the Japanese, thereby introducing needless difficulty, our author handles his subject according to a method of his own. Old classifications into declensions, conjugations, and the like, are abandoned, but a thorough study of the structure of the language enables him to present the problem in its simplest principles. Mr. Aston, his predecessor, was the first to introduce light into the chaos of Japanese grammar as writers up to his time had left it; but while Mr. Aston deals with the whole range of literature, Mr. Chamberlain concerns himself only with the written language of to-day.

In Japan, as in most Asiatic countries, the difference between the spoken and written forms of the same tongue amounts to that of difference of dialects. Even to a fluent speaker of the vernacular the sentences of a newspaper, letter, postal card, or advertisement are mysteries. Even the vocabulary seems strange, though the chief puzzles are structural. The natural fruits of a long and varied career of a language having a thousand years of literature behind it are seen in the four categories of written style now in common use. The standard translation of the Bible is in the semi-classical style, while the lower-class newspapers indulge freely in the semi-colloquial style. The ordinary vehicle of contemporary literature, approved by a majority of Japanese gentlemen, is the Sinico-Japanese or Chinese style. This is the outgrowth of the long study of the Chinese classics, and the slavishly literal translation of them. As compared with pure Japanese, it reminds one of Johnsonese or Carlylese when set beside the English of classic authors. The fourth style, which bristles with grammatical peculiarities, is almost wholly Chinese in phraseology. The introduction of the telegraph and postal card is making inroads on this style, and driving it into desuetude. In general, it may be said that the last few years of Western influence in Japan have noticeably lowered the forms of the written language toward those of the spoken tongue.

In his pithy chapters on the Phonetic System the author gives needed caution as to the pronunciation of Japanese words: "The native pronunciation of both vowels and consonants is less broad and heavy than in most European languages, and especially in English." Americans often dispute concerning the pronunciation of such names as I-wa'-ku-ra, Yo-ko-ha'-ma, Sa'-tsu-ma, Mi-ka'-do (I-wa-ku'-ra, Yo'-ko-ha-ma, Sa-tsu'-ma, Mi'-ka-do). They single out some one syllable and lay a heavy stress upon it, whereas in Japanese there is no tonic accent, but rather a clear flowing enunciation, which develops all the sounds, but emphasizes none. So also in a sentence, the singling out of a word for a special ictus is unknown to the Japanese. We have often heard natives reading a book, a speech, an address, and noticed the absence of inflection, which gives a sing-song style to their finest productions. We remember the feeling of surprise that came over us when even the Mikado himself followed the same habit—so vicious to an American, so musically correct to the native tympanum. In the theatres, of course, the opposite and, to us, more natural method is followed.

The second division of the work concerns itself with uninflected words. These consist of substantives, pronouns, numerals, and postpositions. No words are more curious to a foreigner of analytic mind than the personal pronouns, which, instead of signifying 'I,' 'thou,' 'he,' etc., mean "servant," "awkward person," "young," "selfishness," or something of impersonal or substantive meaning. No mistakes of foreigners are more frequent or productive of more merriment to the lower classes than these, which maladroitly reverse the position of superior and inferior. In no grammar extant is this whole subject of the pronoun more luminously set forth than in the little manual before us. In entering upon inflected words, adjectives and verbs, the real difficulties of the language are encountered. The wealth of hypothetical and oblique forms, the vast number of ways in which one may speak in Japanese without being nailed to positive statement, the network of circumlocution, and the dynamics of shadows, are minutely set forth. They give one a vivid idea of the possible diplomatic powers of those who wield this speech; they also explain easily why so few foreigners graduate beyond the simple indicative forms. The chapter on syntax seems rather short, albeit the points made are well illustrated by typical examples, while the final portion on the epistolary style prepares one to read one of those stilted and curious productions called a *tégami*, or letter. The whole work is a model of brevity and perspicuity. We are glad to see that a Romanized Japanese Reader, by Mr. Chamberlain, with text, translation, and notes, is in press, and thus the needed companion volume will not be lacking.

Affaiblissement de la Natalité en France: Ses Causes et ses Conséquences. Small 8vo, pp. 152. Paris: G. Masson. 1886.

THE Marquis de Nadaillac is well known to the scientific world as the author of a number of much-valued works on prehistoric archæology. His latest literary production, however, relates to the decreasing birth-rate in France, its causes, and the discouraging consequences which this alarming symptom of weakness augurs for the future of the French people. His small volume embodies the results of a careful study of the vital statistics of all nations among which the institution of the census is known.

The evil so unceremoniously laid bare by the author had already made itself felt at the beginning of the Christian era, when, according to Suetonius and Tacitus, the Romans endeavored to increase the population of Gaul by establishing in certain parts of the country settlements of foreigners, chiefly of Germanic stock. The oldest count of parishes and hearth-fires of which a knowledge has come down to the present time was made towards the year 1328, under the reign of Philip of Valois. It shows that in an area equal to three-fifths of France as she existed before 1870, there were 2,943,763 fires, representing approximately a population of 11 millions of souls; and, admitting the same proportion for the whole of France, the number of 18 millions would be reached, and thus the result obtained that during a period embracing five centuries

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and a half the population of France has only doubled.

Matters have not improved in recent times, as shown by a table giving the number of births for a population of 10,000 souls during more than a century, namely, from 1770 to 1880:

Births from	1770-80.....380	Births from	1841-50.....274
" "	1801-10.....325	" "	1851-60.....267
" "	1811-20.....316	" "	1861-68.....264
" "	1821-30.....309	" "	1869-80.....245
" "	1831-40.....289		

The author points out that the decrease in the birth-rate has gone on in years of war, of epidemics, revolutions, and financial crises, as well as in the prosperous times of peace, wealth, and industrial expansion; and he is forced to regard it as inherent in the race, the social and economic conditions under which it maintains itself, and, above all, the national character. Comparing these results with those obtained in other countries, the Marquis is struck with the differences he meets on all sides:

"We see in Russia," he says, "507 births among 10,000 inhabitants; in Hungary 416, in Würtemberg and Saxony 400, in Prussia 384, in Austria 381, in Italy 370, in England 337, in Belgium 322, in Denmark 312, in Switzerland 297. France occupies absolutely the lowest rank among the countries of Europe in which the annual births are registered. Switzerland, which precedes us immediately in the scale, is yet considerably ahead of us. Among our Belgian neighbors, who speak the same language, who profess the same religion, and have the same legislation, who, by their customs, industry, mode of life, the fertility of their soil, and the salubrity of their climate, bear the closest resemblance to our northern populations, the birth-rate, far from being on the decline, is increasing. In 1866 there were only 316 births among 10,000 inhabitants; to-day 322 are counted."

He views with some apprehension the rapid increase of population in neighboring Germany, which country, though drained by incessant emigration, has added in each of the eight years embracing the period from 1872 to 1880 nearly half a million to its inhabitants. "Notwithstanding the gaps caused by emigration," the author says, "the German population is rapidly growing. Every German household forms a large family; every French household forms a family of few members; such is the truth in its brutal reality. This considerable growth, united with the strength of her Government and the order established in her institutions, insures the preponderance of Germany in Europe. It would be fruitless to conceal the gravity of the danger."

France is a country of immense resources, owing to the fertility of the soil, the intelligence, industry, and, on the whole, frugal habits of her population. Few facts have astonished the world more than the facility with which France rose again after the cruel defeats of the late war. An indemnity under which more than one nation would have succumbed was paid three years after the treaty of 1871, and yet the prosperity of the country equalled—if it did not surpass—that of the most brilliant years of the Empire.

"But," says the Marquis, "the picture has a dark spot which must not be overlooked: if our birth-rate were equal to that of our neighbors, the number of our children would be annually increased by three hundred thousand, and these children, so long consumers before becoming producers themselves, would cause a heavy expense, which cannot be estimated at less than a milliard per annum. It is therefore the saving of this considerable expense which nourishes every year luxury or adds to the general wealth. We buy a part of our riches at the price of our flesh and blood, and the selfish enjoyments of the present at the cost of our inevitable enfeeblement in the future."

Malthusian theories find no favor with the Marquis de Nadaillac; he considers marriage and paternity as natural rights, with which the legislator cannot interfere. The apprehension of an insufficiency of the means of subsistence, so conspicuously dwelt upon by the school of Malthus, appears to him quite chimerical in the presence of our modes of transportation by steamers and railways. A few months ago a quick-sailing steam vessel of 3,000 tons made the passage from Buenos-Ayres to Marseilles in seventeen days, having on board a cargo of maize and other grain, which it transported at 5 francs per ton. The spreading of railways in British India will bring to the ports of Europe in constantly increasing quantities the cheaply acquired products of a rich soil. "It is really strange that at a moment when our agriculturists are with good right alarmed by the ridiculously cheap importation of cereals from the most distant quarters, the prospect of inevitable famines is held out by certain parties." The author is convinced that the development of cultivation and industry can yet for a long time make front against the increase of population.

Mythologie der deutschen Heldensage. Von Wilhelm Müller. Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1886. Pp. 260.

THIS work of Prof. Müller deserves to take rank hereafter among the best books upon the subject with which it deals. It is a compact and erudite treatise, which makes its appeal entirely to the reader's scientific interest in the heroic legends of the ancient and mediæval Germans. Writing for scholars who are assumed to be tolerably familiar not only with the old saga literature itself, but also with modern theories concerning it, the author omits for the most part any detailed recital of the legends, and devotes himself to the interpretation of them. His position among mythologists may be described as eclectic. On the one hand, he repudiates the view that heroic lore is in general out of all relation to historical facts; on the other hand, he argues that it usually contains another element than transfigured or perverted history. This other element is religious in character, being a poetic construction by the popular imagination (if that be a suitable name for the myth-making organ) of certain natural phenomena. The Heldensage as we know it is generally the result of an interfusion of these two ingredients, the historical and the religious myth, the separation of which is, according to Müller's view, more or less within the power of the investigator. In some cases, that of the Greeks, for example, little can be done in this direction. Here the religious element greatly predominates, and in any case our trustworthy historical knowledge of the Greeks during their myth-making period is very scanty. The case of the Germans, however, is more hopeful, since the tales of Walter, Siegfried, Tell, and the like, have grown up in times which are open to our historical scrutiny.

The chief aim of Müller's work is to examine the principal heroic sagas of the Germans with a view to effecting this separation. To this end he makes free use of certain principles of interpretation which, though sound enough to afford valuable auxiliary evidence, are hardly of a nature to carry conviction alone. Thus a combat between two heroes is construed as the mythological version of an ethnic struggle between their respective nations; the death of one of the combatants stands for the subjugation of his people; and the successful warrior's marriage of a foreign wife typifies the vassalage of the bride's people to the bridegroom's. On the other hand, a hero's battles with dark and malignant demoniac agencies are to be regarded as survivals of an ancient natural religion. For example: Siegfried as slayer of the dragon is the descendant of an old god of light in conflict with the powers of darkness; but Siegfried as the friend and ally of King Günther, as the husband of Kriemhild, and as finally the victim of Hagen's treachery, is an emblem of tribal vicissitudes.

We cannot here enter into the details of Müller's argument, or give any account of the many ingenious combinations and deductions in which his book abounds. One point, however, may properly receive brief notice. Having in mind the methods of certain scholars, one naturally desires to know in these days how any recent writer upon mythological matters looks upon the value of etymology as an instrument of research in his field. These words from the book we have been considering are therefore of some interest:

"Since names, like all other words, may have different meanings, and only the connection shows in what sense they are to be taken; and since, also, a root may exhibit in derivatives and compounds the most varied applications of its original sense, it comes about oftentimes that even an etymology which is from a purely linguistic point of view correct, may either contribute nothing to the understanding of a myth or may lead to the strangest errors, unless one first comes to understand the meaning of the tradition from the substance of the tradition itself."

This seems to imply that Wilhelm Müller of Göttingen, unlike the more illustrious Max Müller of England, looks upon etymology as a useful handmaid but a dangerous mistress in mythological inquiries.

Bondestudenter. Fortælling af Arne Garborg. Copenhagen: P. G. Philipsen.

THE tendency to turn from national self-glorification to self-criticism is generally a healthy one, and the success of Mr. Garborg's 'Peasant Students' is due to the baldness with which it exhibits a series of most unflattering portraits of the typical figures in Norwegian society and politics. An uncompromising cynicism pervades the book, and the moral is pointedly indicated that in a small state a man, if he amounts to anything, has the choice between hypocrisy and martyrdom; he cannot afford to be wholly true, wholly honest, wholly anything. The theme of the story is really the disadvantage of belonging to a small state—the misery of small surroundings, and small standards of vice and virtue and human worth. Men cannot avoid elbowing each other too closely, and, in spite of a blatant idealism publicly professed, their actions are prompted by a stern regard for utilities. The author frankly recognizes that it must be so, and does not find fault with utilitarian conduct; but he pours out the vials of his wrath upon the public hypocrisy—the spirit of lying—which compels a man, as a matter of fashion, to profess a worn-out and impracticable idealism. He shows that a man who should undertake to live in accordance with the sentiments which the church and society in Norway avow, must beg, steal, or starve. Thus, the fiction that the Lord provides for those who believe in him, without any particular exertion on their part, is made the subject of scathing satire. The loudly professed faith in the peasants as a sort of hazy abstraction—as the sound core and the saving strength of the nation—is held up to ridicule; and it is shown that the peasants themselves, whenever they succeed in acquiring a little culture, make haste to sever all ties that bound them to their former condition.

The hero of the book, Daniel Braut, is, as the title indicates, one of these peasant aspirants, not so much for culture as for the sordid concomitants of culture—good food, ease, and pleasant surroundings. He owes his opportunity to rise to the romantic belief in "the people," which then was prevalent (and is yet), and naturally, as the Norse proverb says, "howls with wolves among which he finds himself." He chimes in with all the vague declamation about the peasant's strength and virtue (though privately dis-

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trusting it), and assumes to a moderate extent the opinions of every social and political clique with which he comes in contact. His efforts to acquire the *frons urbana* of which Horace speaks —the readiness of speech and ease of manner which mark the dweller in cities—are amusingly and pathetically described. It takes, however, more than one generation to make a gentleman. The peasant stamp is too deeply impressed upon Daniel to be obliterated by any artificial veneering.

It will be seen that as a mere piece of social satire 'Bondestudenter' is interesting and effective. As a story it is colorless, and overloaded with lengthy discussions. A multitude of persons who have nothing to do but to convert the hero to their views, appear and disappear in a most bewildering manner. There is not a love episode or anything approaching it, from the book's beginning to its end. Women play no part whatever in it, except in affording opportunities to the hero to be unfaithful to his ideals. His first love, Inga Holm, flits as a beautiful shadow through the early chapters, but does not do anything nor utter a word. The second, Bertha-Marie, is equally passive and incorporeal; and the third, Hanna Steensrud, is but the unlovely incarnation of the mammon which Daniel finally weds. Being presented with the alternative, starvation or unfaithfulness, he has no hesitation in choosing the latter. And the author is inclined to approve his choice.

Shaftesbury (the first Earl). By H. D. Traill. [English Worthies. Edited by Andrew Lang.] D. Appleton & Co. 1886. 12mo, pp. 218.

As long as Macaulay and Dryden hold their place in English literature, the first Lord Shaftesbury will hold his place as one of the most interesting of historical characters, and the type of a certain class of politician. No member of the "Cabal" has come down to us with an unstained reputation, and the efforts that have from time to time been made to rehabilitate Ashley have effected little more than to convince the world that, if less honest than Clifford, he was, on the whole, a better man than Buckingham, Arlington, or Lauderdale. By an unusual fortune of heredity, it is his best qualities that have been transmitted to his distant posterity, and it is not perhaps too much to say that there may be traced in the recently deceased Earl qualities, and certainly a general drift of intellectual sympathy, which distinguished his ancestor.

Mr. Traill, in his very interesting sketch of Lord Shaftesbury, takes a middle attitude as to the character of his hero. "It seems to me," he says, "that, if Shaftesbury's apologists sinned against the injunction to 'nothing extenuate,' the severest of his censors have no less certainly defied the prohibition to 'set down aught in malice.'" On more than one occasion he justifies him, or at least brings in a verdict of "not proven," where Macaulay and Campbell had visited him with severe censure. But on the whole he can only confirm their verdict. In an admirable summary of his earlier career (pp. 94-to 97), he remarks that "all his repeated changes of party find their simplest explanation in a theory of pure self-interest, and some of them are explicable in no other way." But, after all, "the only reason why he changed sides oftener than his rivals was because he had a keener eye for coming events than they, and a readier skill in adapting himself thereto." Then, after citing the apt passage from Hudibras, he adds: "This account of the matter seems to me to be as accurate as it is witty. I have no doubt that Shaftesbury felt real twinges of Royalism some time before the Restoration, and shooting pains of Protestantism before the anti-Catholic movement of 1673-80. He foresaw in each case the impending ruin of the party to which he had attached himself, and for no man had the *victrix causa* a more overmastering attraction than for him. He had not the faintest sympathy with the eccentric preference of Cato; in that matter, at any rate, he was on the side of the gods."

History of the Scottish Expedition to Norway in 1612. By Thomas Michell, C.B. T. Nelson & Sons. 16mo, pp. 189.

THE Scotch expedition narrated in this book was an incident in what is known as the "Calmar War" between Sweden and Denmark, when Gustavus Adolphus, having recently succeeded to the throne, undertook to obtain mercenary troops from western Europe. Most of these troops, under Mönnichhofer, succeeded in landing on the coast of Norway and making their way to Sweden. A small body of Scotchmen, three or four hundred in number, under Ramsay and Sinclair, were intercepted by a body of peasants at Kringelen and cut to pieces, very few escaping with their lives. Mr. Michell finds it hard to understand how so large a body of troops as this could have been destroyed by the inconsiderable number of peasants who are reported to have attacked them; and the "tömmervælte," or artificial mass of beams and stones, which the reports all speak of as having been rolled down upon them, seems to him quite inadequate. It cannot have destroyed, he thinks, more than twenty-five or thirty men (p. 63). His theory of the matter is "that the three hundred Scots were not all armed," a conclusion arrived at partly from the accounts of the affair, partly from the relics of the fight. On this theory "the almost entire annihilation of the three hundred men by four hundred Bönder is seen to have been easy enough." We do not ourselves, however, see anything incredible in three hundred well-armed troops, after being thrown into confusion and partly crushed by the "tömmervælte," being then cut to pieces by a superior number of armed peasants of the neighborhood. The peasants of Norway were not the helpless serfs of France or Germany, but well-to-do and warlike freemen, the real rulers of their country.

There are a number of rather rude illustrations, and an appendix containing copious historical documents; also, an index of names of persons.

The Second Punic War, being Chapters of the History of Rome. By the late Thomas Arnold, D.D. Edited by William T. Arnold, M.A. With eight maps. Macmillan & Co. 1886. 8vo, pp. 435.

THE account of the Second Punic War in Arnold's 'History of Rome' is generally recognized to be one of the masterpieces of English historical composition. Unfinished as it is, breaking off abruptly soon after the battle of the Metaurus, it has a certain completeness and unity which well warrant its being published by itself as the best and most graphic history of a most important epoch. Its editor, a grandson of the author, has provided it with the apparatus which it very much needed, and with notes embodying the results of the latest scholarship. He has not thought it worth while to continue the work to the end of the war, or even, as Archdeacon Hare did, to append the account of the last years of the war written in 1823 by Dr. Arnold for the 'Encyclopædia Metropolitana.' "That account is of altogether different texture and value to the portrait of Hannibal which Dr. Arnold drew in the maturity of his powers, and no service is done to his memory, but rather the contrary, by attempting to stitch the two together."

Mr. Arnold's brief introduction presents well and forcibly the reasons for this separate publication, as resting upon the special character and merit of this portion of the original work. His most important contribution, however, is in the extended notes at the end of the volume, chiefly upon the questions of topography with which the history of this war abounds. We have here collected complete materials for determining the disputed localities of Hannibal's pass over the Alps, the battles of Trebia and of Thrasymenus, and the rest. As a whole, in regard to these controversies, it appears that "the general result has been to weaken the authority of Polybius and to raise that of Livy" (p. 386)—on the ground, in Dr. Arnold's own words, of "the total absence of geographical talent in Polybius." He therefore rejects the view, accepted among others by Niebuhr, Arnold, and Mommsen, that Hannibal crossed by the Little St. Bernard; for Livy, "who appears to have faithfully copied out a good authority, takes Hannibal from the head of the Durance valley," and this leaves us only the choice between the Mont Genèvre and the Col d'Argentière. As between these, he is disposed "to say that Mr. Freshfield, who has the advantage of being the last man to review the whole question in the light of his predecessors' labors and of his own personal experience, . . . at present holds possession of the field"; and Mr. Freshfield supports the Col d'Argentière. With regard to Thrasymenus, he abstains from expressing any judgment, being "strongly of opinion that the question is now in a state at which it can only be advanced by some scholar with the opportunity and inclination to make a thorough and leisurely personal examination of the ground, texts in hand" (p. 389).

It is to be hoped that this volume will meet with a hearty reception, and will do something to give the present generation a closer and more immediate acquaintance with its distinguished author.

Armstrong's Primer of English History, for school and family use. With maps. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

THE compiler of this Primer has accomplished, with a reasonable degree of success, the difficult task of squeezing the entire course of English history into a little over a hundred small pages. The matter is selected with good judgment, and presented with a laudable avoidance of unnecessary detail; the fault that strikes us in the general plan being that the most important statements seem insufficiently emphasized. None but important facts are, of course, intended to be given at all; but even here there is a difference, and the reader or pupil ought to have certain things impressed very deeply upon his mind.

The destructiveness of the Black Death (p. 38) is much underrated by the statement that "more than fifty thousand persons" were its victims. Probably there was that number in the single county of Norfolk, and it is pretty well agreed that at least a third of the population of the eastern counties was carried away. The statement that it was "followed by social disturbances among the laboring classes" is a good illustration of the want of emphasis of which we have spoken. It means very little as it stands, and to make it worth inserting at all it ought to be shown what these disturbances were, and why they arose. On page 64 we read Duke (for Earl) of Warwick. The extreme difficulty of combining brevity with accuracy is illustrated by the table of sovereigns on page 52, which gives (in the Spanish column) Catharine of Navarre, Ferdinand V. of Castile and Ferdinand II. of Aragon—as if the last two were different persons (but where is Isabella of Castile?); also by the map of "Europe, illustrating Continental wars"

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(p. 86), which, designed to illustrate a series of wars, is not exact for any one period. It is inserted at the accession of William III., but belongs to the middle of the nineteenth century; the Austrian Netherlands are called Belgium, Genoa is annexed to Sardinia, Silesia to Prussia, and Galicia to Austria. By an oversight, the name Burgundy stands east of the Saône (in Franche-Comté—an historical Burgundy, to be sure).

Lives of Greek Statesmen. Second Series: Ephialtes—Hermokrates. By the Rev. Sir George W. Cox, Bart. Harper & Bros. 1886. 16mo.

Sir George Cox has made Greek history so distinctly his field that whatever he writes in relation to it is sure to be read with interest. The reader of his 'Lives' is struck with the ease and picturesqueness of narration which come from a long and minute familiarity, and which place him in imagination in the presence of the generation whose political intrigues and contests are described as if it were his own period. A very clear picture of Greek society is therefore sketched in relation to these ten personalities. The former volume, also containing ten lives, extended from Solon to Gelon; in the present we have a practically complete history of the period from the close of the Persian war to that of the Peloponnesian war. It is really a misfortune that all the modern nations have softened the Roman *c* (representing the Greek κ), so that the forms of proper names that have come down to us do not give us the equivalents of the original. Hence no end of confused and discrepant usage in writers of the present day. *Kimon*, of course, is not only a more correct form, but a pleasanter sound than *Cimon*, just as *Kikero* is pleasanter than *Cicero*; but nobody says *Kikero*—except *as a Latin word;* why, then, *Kimon?* Again, what is gained by printing *Perikles* and *Hermokrates?* Even the distinction between literary and classical usage is not always easy to observe. Mr. Cox says *Thucydides;* why not then *Macedonian?*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen & Greenough. Select Orations of Cicero. Edited with Vocabulary. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Constantinople. New edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Bolton, Sarah K. Lives of Girls Who Became Famous. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Burnaby, Fred. Our Radicals: A Tale of Love and Politics. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Catalogue of a Valuable Collection of Books and Pamphlets relating to America. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
Coxon, Ethel. The Long Lane: A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Deane, Mary. St. Brianels. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Dupuy, E. The Great Masters of Russian Literature in the Nineteenth Century. Englished by N. H. Dole. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Field, Alice O. Palermo; Christmas to Whitsuntide. Revised ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Foye, J. C. Handbook of Mineralogy. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.
Gladstone, W. E. The Irish Question. Charles Scribner's Sons. 10 cents.
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Jewett, Sarah O. Deephaven. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Kelsey, Prof. F. W. Cæsar's Gallic War. Boston: John Allyn.
Knox, T. W. The Life of Robert Fulton and a History of Steam Navigation. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
L'Espinois, Comte Henri de. La Ligue et les Papes. Paris: Palmé; Boston: Schoenhof.
Lotze, H. Outlines of Æsthetics. Englished by G. T. Ladd. Ginn & Co. $1.
Macy, J. Our Government: How it Grew, What it Does, and How it Does it. Boston: Ginn & Co. 88 cents.
McClelland, M. G. Princess: A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. 50 cents.
McPherson, Edward. A Hand-book of Politics for 1886. Washington: J. J. Chapman. $2.00.
Memoirs and Letters of Dolly Madison. Edited by her grandniece. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Millennial Dawn. Vol. 1. Pittsburgh, Pa.: Zion's Watch Tower.
Morris, E. J. Prejudiced Inquiries; Being the Backwoods Lectures for 1884. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Péladan, J. Curieuse. Paris: Laurent; Boston: Schoenhof.
Péladan, J. Le Vice suprême. Paris: Laurent; Boston: Schoenhof.
Pisemsky, Alexis. Les Faiseurs. Paris: Plon & Nourrit; Boston: Schoenhof.
Rollinat, Maurice. L'Abîme: Poésies. Paris: Charpentier; Boston: Schoenhof.
Rougemont, A. de. La France: Notes d'un Américain recueillies et mises en ordre. Writers' Publishing Co.
Schubin, O. Gloria Victis: A Romance. W. S. Gottsberger.
Science Economic Discussion. The *Science* Company.
Sinclair, G. L. Dry-Plate Making for Amateurs. Scoville Manufacturing Co.
Southworth, E. D. E. N. The Gipsy's Prophecy. T. B. Peterson & Bro. 75 cents.
Stinde, J. The Buchholz Family: Sketches of Berlin Life. Englished by L. Dora Schmitz. London: G. Bell & Sons.
Strong, Rev. J. Our Country: Its Possible Future and its Present Crises. Baker & Taylor.
Swann, J. An Investor's Notes on American Railroads. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Systematic Catalogue of the Public Library of the City of Milwaukee. Published by the Trustees.
The Critic. Vol. v. Jan.—June, 1886. The *Critic* Company.
The Great Gold Secret, and Other Stories. Cassell & Co. 15 cents.
The Irish Question as Viewed by One Hundred Eminent Statesmen of England, Ireland, and America. Ford's National Library. 25 cents.
Trumbull, J. H. Memorial History of Hartford County, Conn. 2 vols. Boston: Edward L. Osgood.
Vámbéry, A. The Story of Hungary. With the Collaboration of Louis Heilprin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
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